

# Public Personnel

## Review

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**A New Approach to Interviewing**

**Detroit *Does Not* Experiment in Arbitrating Labor Disputes**

**Revolution by Decentralization**

**California State's Merit Award Program**

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**Quarterly Journal of  
The Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada**

# Public Personnel Review

*The Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly  
of the United States and Canada*

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# Gordon R. Clapp Receives Stockberger Award

For outstanding contributions to the development of a sound philosophy of personnel management and its application in the Tennessee Valley Authority, especially in its democratically operated program of employee relations; for application to the TVA of dynamic administrative practices based on sound human relations; and for personal qualities of integrity, and courageous leadership in public administration which make him an inspiring example for all public servants in a democracy.

**G**ORDON R. CLAPP, Chairman of the Board of the Tennessee Valley Authority, received the fourth Warner W. Stockberger Achievement Award in Personnel Administration. The medal and certificate awarded for outstanding contribution to the objectives of personnel administration were presented to Mr. Clapp by the Society for Personnel Administration at its monthly dinner meeting on April 22, 1952.

The pattern of Gordon Clapp's professional life is in the finest tradition of a career public servant. "Clapp of TVA"—the man and the agency have grown over the years to exemplify an applied philosophy of personnel administration that permeates the organization and the policies of the men who guide its operation. The fundamental principles of this philosophy are rooted in the recognition of the worker as an individual—a person whose mind and spirit are integral with his physical skills and energies. The development of this principle into a workable, work-a-day program of personnel administration, and its acceptance and espousal by management and employees alike—this is the unique contribution to the objectives of personnel administration for which Gordon Clapp of TVA has been principally responsible.

Mr. Clapp was born in Ellsworth, Wisconsin, October 28, 1905. After graduating from Lawrence College in 1927, he did graduate work in administration of higher education, at the University of Chicago, and received his M.A. degree from that institution. From 1927 to 1933 he was successively Personnel Officer, Director of Publicity and Assistant Dean at Lawrence College, Appleton, Wisconsin.

Within two months after the Tennessee Valley Authority was set up by Congress, Mr. Clapp was appointed as assistant to Dr. Floyd Reeves, the first TVA Director of Personnel. When Dr. Reeves left TVA two years later, Mr. Clapp was named as his successor. His grasp of problems of organization and general administration made him from the beginning a valued adviser to the TVA Board and General Man-

ager on matters beyond the normal scope of personnel administration. His demonstrated talents in administration resulted in his appointment as General Manager of TVA when that post became vacant in 1939. Eight years later, when David E. Lilienthal left the chairmanship of the TVA Board to head the newly created Atomic Energy Commission, President Truman selected Gordon Clapp to become Chairman of the TVA Board, the post he now holds.

These are some of the milestones in a career which, in the short span of 25 years is already illustrious. But to gain a deeper understanding of the contributions for which Gordon Clapp is now cited, one must scrutinize the TVA personnel policy and program for the imprint of his ideas, and the influence of his leadership. These emerge most sharply perhaps in the TVA program under which its employees and its management work with one another, exchange their views, and settle their differences—all within the framework of a management policy democratically formulated and systematically applied. Those who have studied TVA and its operations, even from afar, are quickly impressed with the influence which this policy has had over the years in building employee morale and creating an esprit de corps among TVA staff members that commands their abiding loyalty to the organization and its objectives.

The pioneering work which Gordon Clapp has done in the field of employee-management relations in the public service is not, of course, the only field in which his talents have been displayed. Today, as the central figure at the apex of a vast and important governmental organization he carries out his administrative responsibilities through the democratic principles he espoused as Personnel Director. In his daily staff relations he trusts and believes in the people with whom he works to execute TVA's diversified program. He has at various times served on important special assignments, including the chairmanship of an United Nations

*(Continued on page 109)*



# The Horizons of Personnel

Administration . . . . . O. GLENN STAHL

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NO PROFESSION is immune to the dangers of stagnation, least of all a profession that deals with the procurement, motivation, and utilization of human energies. For organizing human effort still remains largely a trial and error matter. Human effort is an elusive, intangible quality with which all of us are in daily contact—but one that is managed by guess and opinion (even though informed) more than by scientifically verified facts and premises. With these uncertainties about a subject so ever-evolving, it is a wonder that so many practitioners of the personnel art cling faithfully to concepts and opinions that may have been “tried” but have rarely been “tested.”

So I make a plea for the open mind—for candid acceptance of the experimental character of the personnel function; for wider realization that we have great distances to go; for full appreciation that last year's law, or regulation, or policy is not sacrosanct; for the view that even basic assumptions sometimes deserve reexamination.

It is with this philosophy in mind that I set forth here some results of wishful looking into a crystal ball. The points in this article involve an element of prediction, mingled with my own assumptions as to the shaky and vulnerable areas of personnel administration that bear revision. It is a combination of prediction and aspiration, an effort to hypothecate for the profession what some major emerging goals should be—particularly in the public service.

By the very nature of the subject, other practitioners or students are as entitled as I to state these trends. My purpose is not

so much to persuade the reader to agree with the details of my observations as it is to stimulate reappraisal in general, to urge the profession to drop its timidity when it reaches the periphery of familiar thoughts, to challenge public management to accept the fact that personnel methods and practices are to a great extent in the realm of unknowns and of experimentation, to galvanize our professional groups into militant support for the research point of view—for the point of view that studies with detachment, tries, hypothecates, experiments, analyzes results, tries again, hypothecates again, continues study, and so on, until we begin to make some dents in this field that resemble, if only remotely, those that have been made in the natural sciences.

A look at some of the evolving areas of manpower selection and management will provide a framework for this focus on horizons in the field.

## Testing Improvements

PUBLIC merit systems have long relied on formal tests as the foundation of competitive procedures for entrance into the service. So far nothing seems to be shaking that particular foundation except the perennial depredations of spoilsmen. This, of course, is not a problem to be ignored, but it is not the subject to be dealt with here. The point is that testing, *per se*, appears to be here to stay—at least until some machine is contrived that predicts job success even more accurately and consistently.

Developments in intelligence and achievement tests have gone farther than developments in any other field of manpower administration simply because far more research has gone into that area than in any other. Aptitude testing has followed close on the heels of this success.

Considerably farther behind have been the attempts to measure personality, social intelligence, and emotional adjustment.

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By "farther behind" I mean less developed as to validated results and as to devising firm criteria against which to validate. It is precisely for this reason that I look to these areas for the major improvements and developments in coming years.

More significantly, we shall see greater acceptance of the point that it is just as important, if not more so, to find out how a candidate for employment behaves and how well adjusted he is as it is to find out what he knows. Every thoughtful executive knows the premium he comes to place on stability, adaptability, and "getting-alongness" among his staff. This should provide the necessary stimulation for continued research in the measurement of personality and psychological differences. It is an area of great hope for testing.

#### *Veteran Preference*

OF ALL aspects of public personnel administration, there is none in which the attitudes of personnel and management people are more heavily weighted with the fears of nonconformance and the fears of reprisal from pressure groups than is the subject of veteran preference. And there is none in which either solid reasoning or research have had as little sway. There are exceptions, to be sure.<sup>1</sup> But, by and large, people begin to get more rational and less emotional about this subject in proportion to the length of time following our involvement in a major war.

Some day—and perhaps not too many years hence—we will probably see more support for the idea, already advanced several years ago by committees of the National Civil Service League and of the Civil Service Assembly, to limit veteran preference in *initial employment* to the first five years after a veteran has been discharged from the military service. The purpose of veteran preference is to facilitate readjustment to civilian employment following a man's required service to his country in the military. To meet this need by making preference perpetual is both arbitrary and inconsistent with the long-range interests of all veterans and citizens. Preference

should not be designed to encourage people who fail to make a success at other occupations during a reasonable period following their military discharge to come then to the government service with a special advantage.

This thought is reinforced by the fact that a number of local jurisdictions already limit preference to the less-than-five-years-after-discharge veterans, including Chicago, Mobile County (Alabama), and all cities in New York state.

#### *Job Classification and the Rank System*

THAT the theory and processes of position analysis and evaluation on the basis of duties have had a significant impact on manpower administration is not to be gainsaid. That they have supplied the answer to all our prayers is, however, a highly challengeable statement.

True, where chaos reigned before, job classification has come as a godsend. But, why is it that thoughtful personnel men have not puzzled more than they have over the fact that such enterprises as the military, the Foreign Service, and the commissioned corps of the U. S. Public Health Service have operated rather successfully under a substantially different concept?

It would be interesting to trace the differences between the position concept and the rank concept and the effect they have had on each other in recent years, but there is hardly space for that here.<sup>2</sup> Attention to the duties assignment has modified the operation of many rank systems, but some of the basic features of the latter remain untouched.

The important point for this discussion is that there is increasing skepticism regarding the usefulness and practicability of strict duties classification for at least certain parts of the public service. We already find it awkward to insist on its full application to college and public school teaching, to police and fire-fighting services (e.g., class definitions here are far broader than for other occupations with skill requirements of comparable levels), and to various other groups. Many are questioning its fea-

<sup>1</sup> Notably Frederick C. Mosher in his article "Is Veteran Preference the Answer?" *Personnel Administration*, January, 1946.

<sup>2</sup> See the discussion on pp. 204-208, and 238-240 in Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl, *Public Personnel Administration* (Harper and Bros., 1950).

sibility for high level executives where—unlike the key punch operator, the file clerk, and the food service worker—each post varies so markedly with the inclinations and talents of the occupant. Secretaries to executives may fall in the same pattern. And who has not heard the wails—often justified—of scientific research directors as to the impossibility of relating the job of a scientist—turned loose to “discover” and “invent”—to routine laboratory processes which seem to be the only definable and measurable elements of his position?

Who is to say that a few broad classes—or ranks, if you please—not too closely tied down to duties-content should not provide the best system for some of these groups? In fact, do we not have some elements of both the position concept and the rank concept already in many of our services? In coming years there will have to be more compromises, particularly for executives and professional people, between the duties classification idea and the individual rank system. We will have to stop preaching “job classification” as a *sine qua non* of all personnel administration.

#### *Executive Control Over Pay Scale Adjustment*

THIS point will stir up little controversy among the administration-minded. But it will make many a line-item “appropriator” and many an amateurish legislator who fancied himself a salary-scale expert turn over in his grave. For the idea here is that we cannot go on hamstringing the executive branch of government by fixed salary schedules prescribed in detail by legislative bodies.

Applying a range of pay to every class or grade of position in the service by statute is an anachronism that really is rooted in the preclassification era and in the horse-and-buggy period of governmental functions. Legislative control can be quite effective with the ordaining of basic compensation floors and ceilings, leaving the fixing of pay scales to executive bodies. The floor-and-ceiling prescription, plus the usual control of the purse strings, are adequate to keep an over-eager administration from getting out of hand.

Flexibility in setting pay scales both as among different occupations or position classes and as between different points in time is certainly needed in almost all jurisdictions. Its existence, in all or in part, in a few places is indicative of the need and of the possibility of doing something about it. As the complexities of pay-rate setting mount, we shall probably see legislative bodies grant more and more authority to administrative units to establish and change pay schedules. It is a much-to-be-hoped-for trend.

#### *Improvement of Selection for Promotion*

NO PERSON nor any enterprise has come very close to perfecting the methods by which employees are selected for advancement to work of greater responsibility and to work making better use of their maximum skills and abilities. Many public jurisdictions have relied heavily on “promotion examinations,” which have the virtue of getting almost everybody who ought to be considered evaluated for the purpose but which are too often administered without due regard to the emotional quotient discussed in point one and to other factors of adaptability. Other organizations, notably the federal service, have relied too much on chance, on a loose system that gambles heavily on selecting officers’ having the tools and the inclination to search widely enough for candidates and on their using adequate means to separate the wheat from the chaff.

Neither of these extremes has given us what we need. Considerable flexibility and latitude for selecting officers is probably essential, at least until social science research pushes much farther into such realms as: “What ingredients in a work situation are necessary to create acceptability and cooperativeness between a supervisor and a newly selected subordinate?” So far, we are tied down to the hypothesis that the supervisor—to be held accountable—must have a major role in the subordinate’s selection.

I cannot help feeling that we have more to gain from some of our experience with promotion examinations than we have to lose. So far they appear to offer the best means available to survey the field of can-

didates and to supplement work history in measuring capacity and growth potential. They can be made more useful when coupled with such devices as "category rating" (broad categories instead of numerical scores) as urged by the Hoover Commission—at least for some occupations and for senior positions. With such a rating plan, supervisory selection discretion is still broad.

At least one notable laggard in the use of validated testing methods for promotion purposes, the federal government, will undoubtedly make increasing use of them in coming years.

#### *Rotation and Internship Types of Training*

THE IDEA of internships for administrative or technical work is far from new among public personnel administrators. But traditionally they have been confined to junior employees and to newcomers to the service. Their essential characteristics—systematic training and planned rotation—are now cropping up in new ways.

Here the federal service is probably leading the way. The extension of internship opportunities to those already in the service, the development of rotation training for middle bracket specialists and administrators in preparation for higher posts, and employment of the idea even for secretarial training (e.g., in the Navy Department) are recent harbingers of the trend in Washington agencies.

I think the trend will go farther. As pure training technique the internship plan is hard to beat. More than that, its value as a morale builder is often overlooked. The stimulation and invigoration of interest that comes with identification with a group that has a high purpose, that comes with exposure to varied and new influences and to previously unknown operations, creates a kind of agency-wide or government-wide *esprit de corps* and enthusiasm for its functions that is difficult to attain otherwise. Such a program needs to carry only the caution that interns not be given extra advantages over others or a royal road to success beyond where their capacity carries them.

It seems inevitable that we will find in-

creasing use of the internship plan, or at least of its rotation training features, in many more occupations and in many more public services than we have been accustomed to in the past.

#### *Development of Executives*

AT LAST the notion that executive positions are important enough to be especially trained for has become respectable—even among the hard-boiled, "it's-born-in-ya," "we-learned-it-the-hard-way" type! The day when every doctor of medicine, lawyer, chemist, or electrical engineer could become an executive by dint of achievement as a specialist in his field appears to be rapidly fading. Even the doctors, lawyers, chemists, and electrical engineers are sensing the shift in popular attitudes toward the executive. Fifteen to twenty years ago there were voices crying in the wilderness—urging that the specialists be trained for executive responsibility and not carelessly placed. Now, that such must be done is a more or less accepted fact; we are only debating the means!

Great impetus has been given the idea by the universities, with such enterprises as Harvard's Advanced Management Program and Columbia's Executive Program in Business Administration setting the tone and the pattern. The cloak of respectability and practicability has been woven by many leaders in the private business world. The United States Civil Service Commission is giving increasing attention to the subject through its new office of Director of Executive Development Programs.

I do not believe that its fashionableness implies any transitory character in the idea, any mere fad. It is here to stay.

Executive development is here to stay because it is so desperately needed. We know far too little about what an executive is, how he operates, and what knowledges and traits one needs to be one; but we also are making far too little use of what we do know. Administration of the world's work is vitally dependent on the leadership of the United States; and that leadership is critically dependent on the quality of our executives—in government, education, and business—for the decades to come.

Some of the trends we may dare hope to see in executive development in the future are: more stress on leadership qualities in testing and selecting for leadership jobs; more opportunity for seasoned executives to take "time-out" for refresher training and conferences both on and off the job; more recognition of executive achievement *per se*, as distinguished from professional or technical competence; more sway for the democratic method in administration. Public jurisdictions that are not preparing their present and potential executives for greater responsibility—by conscious, systematic means—may soon be among the backward enterprises. This trend is one of the most promising and significant in the field of personnel management.

#### *Decline of the "Rating" Concept*

MUCH effort in supervisory time and in clerical operations is still spent in administration of efficiency or performance rating systems in government, as well as in industry, without sufficient knowledge of their basic effect on productivity and morale. No public or private organization has undertaken any comprehensive research, by controlled experiments in actual work situations or by other scientific means, to examine the actual effect of rating methods on employee motivation. The whole field of appraisal of employee performance in work organizations has developed through a series of untested hypotheses and exchanges of opinions.

From such related research as has been conducted on the wellsprings of "the will to work," we generate considerable doubt whether rating—or placing people into categories—provides any real solution to securing high productivity or even to performance evaluation itself. Can invidious comparison with one's fellows be squared with maintaining a sense of achievement and security in an employee? How can his feeling of dignity and worth be preserved or even enhanced? Has any rating system anywhere really worked for long?<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup>See the discussion by A. Q. Sartain, "What Should Industrial Psychologists Do?" *Personnel Psychology*, Winter 1951, pp. 321-326.

If answers to these questions are faced boldly and without the encrustation of traditional ideas, I believe that we will see a drift away from the over-all, one-time rating habit.

We will still need to make evaluative judgments—but they can be *ad hoc* as the occasion demands (when promotions are under consideration, when an employee changes jobs, etc.), not necessarily at fixed intervals. And they don't need to be expressed in standardized language. Supervisor-employee consultation and understanding can be fostered—but without a magic adjective to sum it up that doesn't satisfy anybody. We will always have to remove or place elsewhere individuals who cannot meet the requirements of their jobs. Periodic, over-all ratings make little or no contribution to that. We will also want to give special recognition from time to time to superior achievement—but such recognition can be attuned to the particular accomplishment at a particular time.

It is not necessary to label normal performance as "satisfactory" or anything else. Whatever term is used is bound to appear damning with faint praise. It is not necessary to bracket performance that deviates from normal by pinning a label of "outstanding" or "unsatisfactory" on all those who deserve the attention such words imply. The action that is desirable where either special recognition or placement surgery is called for, can be taken just as well without the encumbrance of the labels, without seeking a common denominator that identifies one case with another—usually inaccurately.

Research is necessary to sharpen our thinking on this subject, but the trend seems to be in this direction.

#### *Development of Unionization*

AN AWAKENING to the importance and usefulness of employee organization in the public service is bound to increase in the future. There are certainly no signs to the contrary. For a substantial period it has been amply demonstrated by the Tennessee Valley Authority that strong union organization can be a major asset to good



management and to effective employee relations.

Undoubtedly one of the secrets of TVA's success lies in the integration of union groups into a Trades and Labor Council, with which management deals and which handles the selection of representatives to act on behalf of the unions. Not all public jurisdictions will find this possible, but some will, and it need not be a critical obstacle in other cases.

The point is that no one has found a genuine substitute as yet for the union as an avenue to satisfy employee needs for group identification and leadership experience. This is particularly true in mass operations where many jobs consist of routine, repetitive tasks. The union is as much a social organization as it is a bargaining agent. It satisfies many of the noneconomic needs of employees which modern work enterprises cannot, by their nature, provide.

Instead of resisting unionization or trying to find substitutes for its functions, management should welcome and take the initiative in developing constructive relationships. Even "enlightened" organizations are unionized. Unionization is not by any means an evidence of failure on the part of management.

The firm place that unionization has won in national policy (unsettled issues are really subsidiary) makes it all the more likely that governmental entities will see increasing development of employee organization. This development will continue to be slowed down, however, by the multiplicity of unions and the failure to work together in many jurisdictions. This situation is most noticeable in the federal service where not only are many bureaus almost entirely unorganized but most others are faced with at least several competing unions instead of teams of unions acting in concert. Among the AFofL unions, integration is provided through the Government Employees' Council, but this still leaves the independent postal unions, the CIO unions, and the National Federation of Federal Employees going it alone.

The highest benefits from employee organization will come as rapidly as public management realizes that unions are here

to stay and as government union leaders take steps to join forces with their fellows.

### *Psychiatric Principles in Administration*

Few practitioners of personnel administration are ignorant of the general interest these days in the so-called human relations approach to management. Everybody is talking about it, but I suspect that not many are doing much about it. Perhaps one of the reasons is that many of us are not quite sure what it is.

Social psychologists write about the basic satisfactions that men must meet in order to put forth their best efforts in any activity, especially in highly organized activity. Training specialists try to discover ways to get us to contribute to meeting these needs. Supervisors sweat through our feeble efforts to make them human relations conscious. Efforts in industry and in government have been strong in this direction for over a decade.

What many of us fail to realize—and here is implied the change that is sure to develop in the next few years—is that at least a major part, if not the most important element, in a man's behavior on the human relations front is something that reflects his own basic emotional make-up and not primarily the situation about him or his intellectual acceptance of "right" or "wrong" principles. How often have we seen employees give lip-service to the best that we know about leadership, cooperative effort, and the like, but lack the ability to put their ideas into practice? Can human relations be *trained* into a person, or do we need to start deeper?

It seems to me that the use of psychiatric principles in management will see marked growth in the near future. Essentially this means that we will see more emphasis on "know thyself" and self-therapy in adjusting our human relations problems. The training of foremen and supervisors, and indeed those supervised, may become more like group analysis and group therapy than the customary human relations "course." Similarly, psychiatry will have a bigger role to play in testing, motivation, and interpersonal relations as well as in training.

After all, it has even penetrated the field of international relations.<sup>4</sup> Why should the personnel field be timid?

### *Greater Integration with the Educational System*

THE PUBLIC service has moved as far away as it dares from the concept that an education counts for something and is an important consideration both as to entrance in the service and as to improvement of the service. It may be true that some jurisdictions have relied too heavily on college degrees (which are not *per se* the best criteria for possession of an education) as main indicators of vocational achievement. But it is this same narrow notion that a college education is primarily vocational that led to the Federal Veteran Preference Act of 1944 setting a low point of regard for the meaning of education. Here we have the startling provision (with no veteran angle to it as such):

No minimum educational requirement will be prescribed in any civil service examination except for such scientific, technical, or professional positions the duties of which the Civil Service Commission decides cannot be performed by a person who does not have such education. The Commission shall make a part of its public records its reasons for such decision.<sup>5</sup>

The "cannot be performed" phrase and the public records clause are sufficient to make any agency lean over backward to avoid stipulating education requirements. It is true that serious harm can be avoided by using valid tests that weed out the unfit, whether or not they have a certain minimum education. What such a provision overlooks, however, is that there is more to an education than training for a field of employment—a something more that we often need in the public service.

The point of view I have in mind has been best stated by Eldon J. Johnson, now Dean of the Graduate School, University of Oregon. Pointing out that government

must be interested in more than job proficiency, he adds:

... it is interested in potentialities, breadth of comprehension, and all the other attitudes and attributes of truly *educated* men and women. It wants men who have developed critical intelligence, who are free from littleness and prejudice, who not only *had* experience or experiences, as all animals do, but have generalized upon them and evolved principles and values for the future. Without such men and women, the complicated tasks of government simply cannot be done. The need is by no means vocational alone. It is cultural . . . in the sense of development of attitude, emphasis, and approach, which transcend content.

Culture he defines as "the residue, the distillation" of facts themselves forgotten.

When all mere information and fact are gone, only attitudes and values remain—a certain outlook and approach to life, a set of criteria, an imprint of countless generalizations, a creative imagination, a certain self-discipline, a discriminating judgment—those cementing, unifying intangibles which fill the interstices of fact and experience. . . . If "bureaucrats" are always to be with us, they should be the best that education can make them.<sup>6</sup>

In recent years there has been a clear re-expression from many sources of the importance of education for living and not just for working—in short, the liberal education idea. This will undoubtedly have its effect on attitudes toward public service hiring practices. Likewise, granting officials time to review and advance their education to the advantage of the public service has become downright respectable. Of course, it has been done in the military and in private business for a long time, but now legislation has been prepared to provide a limited amount of such refresher training off-the-job for federal workers in technical and administrative fields. The likelihood of such legislation coming to pass is increased by John D. Rockefeller III's plan to award special educational opportunities to outstanding people at the upper levels in the federal service.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>4</sup> See John A. P. Millet, "Personality Problems in Making and Executing Foreign Policies," *Personnel Administration*, Sept. 1951.

<sup>5</sup> Public Law 359, 78th Congress, Sec. 5. June 27, 1944.

<sup>6</sup> "Education: Antidote for Bureaucracy," *School and Society*, December 16, 1944, pp. 386-387.

<sup>7</sup> An initial grant of \$250,000 has been made for this program, which is starting in 1952. Princeton University is administering the plan, with awards



With these trends already under way, closer integration between secondary schools and universities on the one hand and government of all levels on the other, is bound to come in the setting of employment standards and in the continuous use of formal educational techniques to improve management.

#### *Prestige of Public Employment*

IN APRIL, 1932, before Franklin D. Roosevelt had been nominated by the Democrats, a dean of American political scientists and an active Republican, Charles E. Merriam, wrote:

I do not hesitate to say that the most expensive luxury in America today is the widespread opinion that government is unnecessarily weak, ignorant, corrupt, and contemptible.<sup>8</sup>

Today, partly because of generalizations unthinkingly based on the indiscretions of a few miscreants, smearing of the bureaucrats has brought the prestige of public employment to a new low. It is not necessary to dwell on the evidence. The point here is that counteraction shedding light on the genuine high standards of morality and performance in those public services administered under genuine merit systems—standards not often equaled in other work enterprises—suggest that the facts can lead only to increased public understanding.

The noble leadership of Robert Ramspeck, in his relatively new role as Chairman of the United States Civil Service Commission, has blazed a trail. The truth about the achievements of public workers and about the general character of the much-maligned bureaucrats is taking hold. Newspapers, radio, television, magazines, civic groups are beginning to see the light and take up the cudgel. The resentment against the government worker is really not so deepseated among the majority of citizens as it may seem. They merely repeat shibboleths without giving the matter a thought. When confronted with facts, they respond with interest and sincerity. The

Federal Personnel Council is getting a good response to a program of disseminating information, films, etc., throughout the country where federal establishments are concentrated. Likewise, the Civil Service Assembly's new project on public relations is a hopeful sign.

It is for this reason that public employees, and personnel leaders in particular, can be expected to give more attention to getting out the facts on the importance and quality of work in the public service. They can and they must. Public confidence in governmental administrative machinery must not be allowed to drop to a point where it endangers our democratic institutions themselves.

#### *Personnel Research*

NO PROGRESS of much consequence or of any enduring quality is likely to come in the broad field of management of manpower unless and until more resources and effort are spent on fundamental scientific research in such areas as worker productivity, motivation, and the effects of various personnel policies.

In any organization, we are concerned with the best ways with which to integrate the energies, the interest, and the capacities of many people toward the common end for which the organization was created. This becomes even more important in organizations as large as most government enterprises. Yet, personnel is an area, more than any other, in which we have traditionally relied on trial-and-error, hunch, and at best, informed guessing. The literature on personnel management is very largely devoted to an exchange of opinion and experience, with relatively little basic scientific research—like that used in the natural sciences—on the precise effects of various management techniques.

With the exception of isolated research projects being carried on in a few universities, and several worthwhile projects under the auspices of the Office of Naval Research, research of a genuinely fundamental and scientific character is still dangerously little in proportion to the overwhelming need.

being made and policies set by a committee of distinguished citizens headed by Dr. Karl T. Compton. Full salaries while on extended leave, travel, and educational costs are covered by the awards.

<sup>8</sup> *Public Management*, April, 1932.

The plain fact is that in a field like personnel management, we are dealing with methods and systems in which we do not have nearly all the answers. The kind of research begun nearly 25 years ago in a relatively small way in the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company, if it were given the kind of support that it needs, could, as Stuart Chase has said, revolutionize industry. For the same reason it could revolutionize public administration. It would be right and proper if government were to take the lead, for a great deal more of our resources and energies need to be placed at the disposal of research. The administration of big government will become more effective as personnel and management methods catch up, through research, with material and equipment development.

This point is the capstone to all the preceding ones in this article. The interest of the Ford Foundation adds to our encouragement. Stuart Chase has reminded us:

It is not necessary to learn all about man and his behavior. No worker in the natural sciences yet knows what life is, or precisely what electricity is. But he knows enough to direct some of the processes of life and of electricity; enough to stamp out yellow fever and light a thousand cities. Ralph Linton points out the

even grander vision now before the social scientists: "The pioneer can only press on, sustained by the belief that somewhere in this vast territory there lies hidden the knowledge which will arm man for his greatest victory, the conquest of himself."<sup>9</sup>

Thus we close with the theme with which we started. Here lies the most promising element in personnel administration. Only upon research rests the possibility of progress in the whole field.

Of course we cannot afford to stop present practices and throw out old ideas willy-nilly just for the sake of change. We must, however, be prepared for change. We must move as rapidly as scientific analysis points the way.

It is very likely that the future course of history will depend on mankind's ability through the social sciences to catch up with our devastating achievements in the material world. The success of work organizations—public and private—will be one of the three or four major components of this development. These horizons of personnel administration, involved as they are with the success of productive enterprise, are vital to the security of our way of life, to civilization itself.

<sup>9</sup> *The Proper Study of Mankind* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1948), p. 46.

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### Gordon R. Clapp

(Continued from page ii)

economic survey mission to Palestine, membership on the President's Committee on Management Improvement, and membership on the President's Advisory Commission on Education. He served as Chairman of the Committee on Employee Relations in the Public Service, established in 1939 by the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, which produced a committee report that became a standard work in the field.

In selecting Gordon Clapp to receive this award, the Award Committee believes that his stature today as an outstanding public official can best be measured in terms of his personal integrity, sincerity and candor in his relationships with all who surround him. These were the personal qualities which influenced and shaped an institutional policy of employee-management relations that in its fruition has become a guide and an inspiration to management everywhere.

# Essential Elements of an Effective Over-all Training Program . . . . DEWITT MAGUIRE

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**T**RAINING is an essential element of the management process. Any discussion of whether or not an organization should or should not train its employees is sheer nonsense. Training is being done every day either consciously or unconsciously. The real problem is: How can the training be made more effective? The literature in the public personnel field gives ample evidence that in recent years, alert administrators everywhere have recognized a need for better training. Yet there is a reasonable doubt that the improvement in the training process has generally kept pace with the attention and effort recently directed to the problem. Much attention has been given to the methods, techniques, and "gimmicks." Perhaps it is time to reconsider the basic elements of a good training program.

For the purpose of this discussion, training is defined as: *The processes used to help employees acquire the attitudes, knowledge, and skills needed to do the specific jobs to which they are assigned and to co-operate in doing the common job of the organization.* This definition suggests that those who are planning and directing the training activities should be well aware of the objectives of their own organization, and that training programs must be integrated with all of the other management processes. Good training is essential to bring about good management, and good management is a prerequisite for effective training of the employees. Fortunately the trainer usually learns more from his efforts than the trainees. If the managers face their responsibilities squarely they can usually keep a step ahead of the other employees.

Apart from the actual elements of a training program there are a few other conditions which appear to be essential in an organization before effective training can be carried on. One of these is a merit sys-

tem for handling personnel problems. This could be established merely by custom or a statement of policy, or by legislation as it is in many governmental jurisdictions. In either case, it is essential that the trainees believe that the acquisition of new information, skills, and attitudes will benefit them as individuals. The benefit may be direct or indirect. If the worker on a manual operation needs more skill he must be assured that acquisition of that skill will not only make his job easier but enable him to keep it longer. The spoils system and effective training do not mix.

Effective programs in position classification and selection are also important as prerequisites for good training. Before any type of instruction program can be launched, all those involved in planning, arranging, and conducting the training must be familiar with the duties and responsibilities as well as the requirements for effective performance on the jobs for which the training is given. In fact, it is virtually impossible to determine the need for training until the responsibilities of employees have been clearly defined.

A few "die-hards" in the public personnel field are still trying to hide their ignorance of effective testing techniques by denouncing the use of written and standardized tests. But any good training specialist, in either a government agency or private industry, is reluctant to set up a training program until he knows that the trainees have been selected by reasonably objective techniques, and that they possess the intelligence and abilities required to learn and perform the jobs for which they are to be trained. Some people object to written tests because they emphasize language skills. Yet reasonable skill in both reading and writing is essential for effective participation in most training programs. Careful selection is in fact so important that many trainers, where it is lacking, have set up their own testing programs

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which eliminate from training those who cannot meet minimum standards of ability and achievement. An illustration of this point may be found in an article by Donald R. Holm in the March 1952 issue of *The Plant*. Speaking of the training of industrial truck drivers, he wrote as follows:

Perhaps the most important fact of all to come out of past experiences is the realization of the necessity for scientific selection.

Scientific selection of candidates should begin with the first interview with the prospective employees. In addition to the routine information required of the applicant, the interviewer should obtain, if possible, the applicant's past experience and safety record in the operation of highway and other motor vehicles. In addition to a thorough physical examination, general intelligence and mechanical aptitude tests which indicate the applicant's judgment, ability to learn, alertness, and personal attitudes should be given.

In the current personnel literature there are many similar expressions on this same point.

The following discussion is concerned with nine factors which appear to be basic and are essential to an effective training program. This discussion is intended primarily to identify and describe briefly each of these elements. A complete discussion of this subject would obviously become a large book.

#### *Training Is a Major Responsibility of Management*

FEW EMPLOYEES, even in supervisory jobs, are able by their own effort to figure out the objectives of an organization and their own duties and responsibilities, to say nothing of the methods and policies to be followed. And, no matter how hard the employee studies and drills in the classroom, his performance on the job has little chance for improvement without continuous coaching and stimulation by his bosses. Effective group performance requires teamwork. Teamwork requires continuous training—no matter how great are the skills and abilities of the individual members of the organization. Even some autocratic military organizations have recognized this point.

If any training activity is considered a

"frill," then it should be dropped. Employees are quick to detect a lack of sincerity about a training program. If the program is not important to the management personnel, it won't seem important to the trainees.

#### *There Must Be a Training Philosophy*

PHILOSOPHY, according to one dictionary definition, is "a systematic body of principles with implication of their practical application." A training philosophy, then, should provide purpose, direction, and consistency in the program. It must recognize both the needs of the organization and the individual. It should place responsibility and provide a yardstick for determining need, selecting methods, and evaluating the results of each training activity.

Here is a simple five-point philosophy which seems to be adequate for a complete training program:

1. The purpose of training is to equip employees with attitudes, knowledge, and skills needed to do the jobs to which they are assigned and to cooperate in the common job of the organization.
2. Training is a primary management responsibility which must be shared by and carried on at all levels of the management organization.
3. Training needs should be determined in a way which will insure that they are recognized as needs by those to be trained.
4. Training methods should be of a type that will require active participation by those being trained. There must be enough participation to insure that the trainees will successfully apply what they have learned to the job situation.
5. Training activities must be evaluated in terms of their specific objectives. Also, the trainees must be able to convince themselves that the training has helped them do their work more effectively.

If administrators measure their training efforts against this simple yardstick they will find themselves training employees merely to pass civil service examinations. They will not allow the training officer to alienate the loyalty of the employees from their supervisors to himself. They will avoid setting up training as an end in itself.

And they will be able to evaluate training in terms of its long range effect on work output.

### *Training Needs Must Be Studied Continuously*

IT SEEMS to be rather common for some managers to suddenly call in an assistant and say "I think it is about time to have another training program," or "You better try to find a good training film to show our people next week." Determination of specific training needs means much more than this. It means study of production records, accident reports, absenteeism records, and employee turnover rates. New budgets and work programs, employee grievances, complaints from the public, and labor market reports also furnish important clues to training needs. The possibility of getting clues as to needs directly from the employees should be neither overlooked nor over-emphasized. In a dynamic organization the investigation of needs must be continuous because they often change rapidly. It must be remembered too, that training is not the only solution to all problems. Often the introduction of a new work method or new equipment will prove more economical than training or re-training a group of employees on a given job.

There are, however, a few areas of training which will be needed in any organization. There is always a need for more effective orientation of new employees and better training of supervisors. Also, most organizations will at times find it necessary to give rather complete vocational training in a few occupations in which the labor supply falls short of the need. This has recently been the case with some of the skilled trades. In addition, most governmental agencies have some specialized jobs—such as police work and fire fighting—for which new employees have to be completely trained.

There are likewise several subjects which should be included in most training programs. Employees in every organization need training in safety, effective communication, human relations, and methods improvement. Yet, before any specific program is contemplated a careful study

should be included in most training programs. Employees in every organization need training in safety, effective communication, human relations, and methods improvement. Yet, before any specific program is contemplated, a careful study should be made to determine the specific needs of the group of employees in question.

### *All Levels of Management Must Participate*

AFTER the exact training needs have been determined it is of course important to select the right subject matter, determine the amount of time required, select methods, prepare materials, and set up schedules. There are three reasons why the supervisors should participate in the planning. First, they normally have the specific knowledge of job content, skills, subject matter, and attitudes which should be included in the program. Second, the training programs must be coordinated with the regular work program of the organization in which the trainees work. This coordination cannot be brought about without the participation of the supervisors. Third, the very fact that a supervisor participates in the planning of a program will virtually guarantee his active support of that program.

### *Determine Program Content According to Need*

WHEN the word training is mentioned, the novice or busy executive is often inclined to think in terms of knowledge or information that may be required on a given job. However, successful job performance usually requires the application of skills. The development of skills and attitudes is usually more difficult than the acquisition of information. A given training program is more likely to be successful if we first determine the skills and attitudes required to do the job in question. Knowledge may well be considered as the raw material out of which skills and attitudes are developed. Once a determination has been made as to what work is to be done and how it is to be done then, and only then, is it possible to determine accurately the spe-



cific knowledge that should be included in the training.

The next step is to determine the status of the trainees. Do they need complete training or just a review? Do they need more information? Or just more practice on skills? In some cases perhaps only a change of attitudes is required. If information is needed what kind? These questions must be answered carefully in the process of selecting subject matter for a training program.

### *Select Appropriate Training Methods*

HERE again the novice too often thinks of training as a matter of calling a group together and "telling" them how to do a job. Showing a film or giving them some written instructions to read are also considered "easy and effective" methods by some. Yet, it has been proved again and again that most people learn very little by merely listening to someone talk. It has been said that the more the teacher talks the less he teaches. It must be remembered that many of the trainees have limited language skill. Ironically, it is often the administrator who objected to written tests who expects employees to learn their jobs through written instructions. Movies, charts, and other visual presentation will aid materially in putting across ideas and information. But when concerned with acquisition of skills and attitudes one must remember that people "learn by doing." They learn by their successes!

The only way to be sure of selecting the right methods is to apply the 4-step procedure used by the T.W.I. during World War II:

1. Prepare the worker.
2. Present the operation.
3. Have the worker try it (and practice it).
4. Follow up.

Anyone with teaching experience who has conducted follow-up on the success of the trainees will know that try out and practice or participation is the most important part of the learning process. There are dozens of good training techniques but each has its own uses and limitations. Each

trainee also has his personal limitations. Both types of limitations must be considered in selecting training methods.

Results will generally be much better when the trainee is made to use several or all six of his physical senses: seeing, hearing, touching, testing, smelling, and kinaesthesia. (Kinaesthesia is defined in the dictionary as "the sense of muscular movement." Whether or not it is a "physical sense" in the same sense as the other "senses" is a question of physiology and not to be treated in this paper.) The perception of muscular movement is especially important in learning manual skills.

Following is a listing of some common methods or techniques classified according to their usefulness in each of the four steps of the teaching process.

1. For preparing the workers:
  - a. Conversation
  - b. Talk—illustrated with slides or charts
  - c. Movies
  - d. Tour of work areas
  - e. Conference—information giving
  - f. Written material
2. For presenting the operation:
  - a. Demonstration with oral explanation
  - b. Demonstration with written explanation
  - c. Talk illustrated with slides, charts, black board, mock-ups or other visual aids
  - d. Movies
  - e. Written instructions
  - f. Oral instructions
  - g. Group discussion—in all of its forms
  - h. Conference—information giving
  - i. Case study
  - j. Job rotation
  - k. Dramatization
3. For try out and practice:
  - a. Practice with imitation or nonoperating equipment (tackling the dummy)
  - b. Practice with real equipment—off the job (target practice)
  - c. Practice with real equipment—on the job (under close supervision)
  - d. Role-playing

- e. Play-acting
- f. Conference problem-solving
- g. Case study
- h. Job rotation
- 4. For follow up:
  - a. Demonstration tests
  - b. Written tests
  - c. Oral tests
  - d. Observation or inspection of performance records
  - e. Questionnaire
  - f. Service ratings
  - g. Interviews

This incomplete listing is presented under the four categories to emphasize the point that seldom if ever can any one method be used by itself to do a complete training job.

#### *Training Facilities Must Be Adequate*

It is obvious that adequate space—either indoors or outdoors—properly lighted, heated, and ventilated is essential for a successful training program. It is often difficult to find suitable room space, but many good sessions have been ruined merely because a window was stuck or a light bulb was burned out. Many training directors seek to obtain conference rooms, classrooms, auditoriums, shops, and laboratories to be used exclusively for training. If they are needed and can be secured—that is good. But in many communities there is adequate and available room space which can be found in existing public buildings. The important thing in either case is to remember the little things. Be sure there is an electrical outlet, if needed, and provide ashtrays if smoking is permitted.

Audio-visual aids are extremely valuable in preparing the learner and presenting work operations. Liberal use of visual presentations, combined with recordings or discussion, provides at least two channels for reception of ideas by the trainee. Movie films, film-strips, slides, and transparencies are commonly used types of visual material. Manuals and other text material can also be effective if well prepared. Models, mock-ups, cut-aways and actual objects or materials are used effectively in some areas and could be used more extensively

both for demonstrations and practice by the trainee.

The selection of the right materials for the particular subject and the particular trainees is important. Also important for the instructor is the cost. Films and other commercially prepared materials are usually quite expensive. Available photographs, drawings, and written instructions as well as "homemade" slides and charts should not be overlooked. Often the content and type of visual aid is far more important than the aesthetic appeal.

The most commonly used items of equipment are: blackboard, 35mm. sound slide projector, 16mm. sound movie projector, transparency projectors, opaque projector, and tape recorder. There are of course many other interesting "gadgets" for visual presentations. The flannel board is one which is becoming increasingly popular.

Because visual equipment is so important, the instructor must be careful in its selection. He does not need a whole warehouse full of machines in order to have an effective training program, nor yet should he try to use the same machine for every training job. It is important for the trainer to know what equipment is available, when and how to use it, and where to secure it when it is needed.

#### *Coordinate the Training Program*

OBVIOUSLY, employee training must be coordinated with other management activities such as recruiting and hiring, budgeting, program planning, and purchasing. For example, it would be foolish to train a new group of workers to operate a piece of equipment which will be taken out of service in a few weeks. Or, if a new type of equipment is to be placed in service proper steps must be taken to have trained personnel available at the right time. In a case where an instructor is informing employees on organization and policy matters, it is important that he knows whether or not there will be any changes in the immediate or near future, and that he gages his program accordingly.

Coordination of one training program with another is often important too. Fre-



quently a substantial saving in time and cost can be made by using the same program for employees in several different departments. Maximum utilization of instructor personnel and training facilities and equipment can be secured by careful scheduling of all training programs. Another type of coordination has to do with timing and sequence. To illustrate, if two training courses in safety are planned—one for supervisors and the other for employees in the same activity—the supervisors' program should be given first or concurrently—not afterward.

#### *Follow Up and Evaluate the Training Program*

EACH training activity can be evaluated from three different reference points: Instructor satisfaction, trainee satisfaction, and benefit to the organization. It is quite possible with any given program to have any one of these without the others. A training program can by its very nature satisfy the ego of the instructor without resulting in any benefit to the organization. The instructor should ask himself these questions: Did I make adequate plans? Did I cover the right subject matter? Did I select the right methods? Did I apply the methods successfully? He should also be concerned with whether or not the trainee feels that he benefitted from the training. He must be careful not to confuse benefit in terms of better work performance with mere "enjoyment." Many trainees will say they "thoroughly enjoyed" attending a training program but continue in the same old rut on the job.

The real test of a training program is the effect it has on job performance. This is very difficult to measure objectively and accurately. Usually when there is a change in performance following a training program there are additional factors involved—such as new methods or new equipment. However, the effects of these other factors can sometimes be evaluated too. In any case, if performance is worse the training probably was not good and we ought to know about it. Following are some items that can be checked in most organizations as objective evidence of the effects of training:

1. Reduction of accidents
2. Reduction of sick leave
3. Reduction of absenteeism
4. Reduction of tardiness
5. Reduction of employee turnover
6. Reduction of grievances
7. Reduction of material waste
8. Reduction of man hours of labor per work unit
9. Reduction of complaints from the public
10. Increase in commendations from the public
11. Ability to find qualified employees in the agency to fill vacancies
12. Improved quality of work (if measurable)

Every training activity should ultimately result in either reduced cost, improved service, better employee relations or better public relations.

Apart from the evaluation the persons concerned with the program should do some other follow-up work. Usually a training program will bring out some suggestions, complaints, or questions which should be investigated. In the training situation, the employee is being asked to put forth a lot of effort to acquire new habits and attitudes. If his suggestions and questions are ignored he will usually feel that management is not doing its part—so why should he go to any trouble. From investigation of training results the trainer can also secure many important clues as to other areas where training is needed. In other words, once he gets started, the evaluation and determination of training needs can be combined into one process.

#### *Conclusions*

SINCE this discussion is directed primarily to governmental agencies, it is appropriate to mention again the importance of a merit system. Only when the trainee feels that he can win recognition and advancement, or at least hold his present job on a merit basis, only then can he be expected to put forth the effort required to modify his habits and attitudes or acquire new skills. And unless he modifies his habits and attitudes, he has not been trained.

Under the merit system there must also be an adequate classification plan and a good testing and selection program. Without these no training program will produce good workers.

An effort has been made in the foregoing comments to define nine basic elements in an effective training program. Management must be aware of its responsibility for training and have a sound training philosophy. There must be a continuous investigation and determination of training needs and participation by all levels of management. Program content, training methods, and facilities must be determined on the basis of actual needs of both the organization and the employees. Finally, coordination, follow-up, and evaluation are essential parts of a training program.

The most important of these elements are the first two. If management personnel at all levels are aware that training employees is part of their responsibility, and if they have a sound training philosophy, then the other seven elements will be provided without too much difficulty.

Now where does this leave the training specialist? Is he doomed to defeat if all of these elements are not present to a specified degree? Certainly not. Only in Utopia could we find the perfect combination of all of these elements throughout an entire organization. Fortunately, at least a trace of each of these can be found in every organization. It is part of the trainer's job to discover or introduce these elements in the organization. But only to the degree that each of these elements is present will the training program be successful.

#### Foreign Personnel Policy Suggestion

**I**N MY opinion, competitive selection from among people who have passed carefully constructed examinations can make the same contribution toward better public service abroad that it has made in this country. We cannot afford to settle for less than the best when sending United States representatives abroad. Their task, whatever their actual duties, is to improve foreign relations. Their potential for influence in the countries and Territories in which they serve is enormous, and there has never been a time in the history of our country that it was more important that they be persons of high calibre.

The first step should be filling the positions with the best qualified people from among those who apply. In addition, examinations designed to test qualifications for overseas jobs should not only test for technical competence but also for such personal qualities as emotional maturity, adaptability, tolerance, and good judgment.

We can get better people to apply for these jobs if we can offer them permanent jobs instead of the present limited tenure; if we can offer a career structure in which the higher jobs may be filled by merit promotions and in which there are opportunities to transfer to other federal activities without loss of tenure or other privileges.

The work of federal employees in foreign countries and in the Territories ranges from the newer economic and military aid and technical development programs to postal work and aid to United States veterans living abroad. Of the 88,000 federal jobs held by Americans overseas, approximately 32,000 are in foreign countries and 56,000 are in Territories and possessions. There is at present no government-wide plan for continued development, with its ultimate potential value to the government, of the skill and experience acquired by federal employees in overseas assignments.—*James M. Mitchell*, U.S. Civil Service Commission.

# Personnel Administration for the People and by the People . . . . .

T. ROY REID and  
C. O. HENDERSON

DANIEL WEBSTER gave emphasis to the role of people in government when he said—"The people's government, made for the people, made by the people, and answerable to the people." Then in the famed Gettysburg Address Abraham Lincoln made the often quoted statement "Government of the people, by the people, for the people."

In stressing the role of people in government these wise statesmen recognized the factor that gives life to every organization either governmental or private. The success of any organization is tied directly to the people who serve in it. It's basic that in the three essential factors in management—men, money, materials—men come first. If the people in an organization are able, earnest, honest, active, and provide a service to those whom they are expected to serve, the organization thrives.

Policies are made by people; procedures are made by people; operations are carried on by people. If policies and procedures and operations are liked, the people who make them are called successful. If policies and procedures are obnoxious to those who are expected to benefit from them, the people who make them are attacked and generally replaced by others.

It's not policies, procedures and operations, therefore, that determine the course of an organization. It's the thinking, the planning, and the action of people that counts. This is a matter of fact, so much so that there is often a need for education on it just as there is about our being reminded constantly about basic principles relating to the matter of fact things of our daily diet.

## *The Need*

MANY of the services which Congress and the people call on the U. S. Department of

Agriculture to provide are needed at the "country cross roads" and the "forks of the creek." The Department has been thrown into big business operations to maintain prices and stockpiles as well as to protect the use of many millions of acres of crop, forest, and range land. The best interests of every citizen are constantly watched by those employed to inspect and grade food, fiber and other commodities. The research done or administered by the Department of Agriculture in cooperation with the states searches into every need of the citizen as well as the farmer.

Much of the work which must be done to carry out the hundreds of acts of Congress must be done by individuals working where the need exists. Many of these people start each morning from small offices in the county seat towns.

The variety of work is great. The conditions vary under which the work is done. Some employees must rub shoulders with big business while others may serve communities of small farms. An employee may live and work in a large city or he may be located in an isolated spot in a national forest.

Regardless of where the employee is located, he must have a sense of well-being. He must feel he is being treated fairly and equitably and what he does is of real importance. It is not easy to reach such an objective where employees are so widely dispersed and are responsible for such a variety of services. Even though the officials at central headquarters have the best of intentions in providing such working conditions the problem of communications is tremendous. To partly offset this problem it is necessary to select the right people and make sure they understand the philosophy, policy, law, and regulations that govern their work and their welfare. They can then better serve the public

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without frequent communication with their supervisor or their head office.

This poses a special problem for the policy making officials. They must see to it that the policies and regulations governing the welfare of employees are practical. These policy officials need help from those who can say what is needed to ensure good working conditions. Such a cooperative effort has another value. If those who are to be governed by a policy or regulation have a part in deciding what it should be, they are more likely to understand, accept, and be guided by it.

The Biennial Personnel Management Meeting of the U. S. Department of Agriculture is one effective way to get those who follow personnel policies and plans to help make them. The purpose is to get the best representative thought focused on the more important personnel problems with the view of getting practical guides for meeting them. The needs of all employees working alone, in large groups, in cities, or on farms must be considered. Those who take part in the meetings must understand these conditions and needs.

#### *How the Meetings Are Operated*

THE ORGANIZATION and operation of such an effort has much to do with the results. There are a few basic principles which should be kept in mind: (1) There must be a recognized need. (2) The official who has the final authority to act on recommendations must want and in so far as possible adopt them as actual bases for operation. (3) Those who take part should be a group representative of all levels where official action is taken. (4) In so far as feasible those who are to take part in the meeting should also assist with the planning. (5) The meeting should be organized and operated so that every participant has the incentive to think through and express his views on any problem with which he is concerned. (6) Final decisions should be made on recommendations as soon as possible, preferably before the end of the meeting. (7) A serious effort should be made to put every approved recommendation into effect as soon as practicable.

The Meetings have all been conducted under the following general pattern:

1. The Director of Personnel, after consulting with his staff, officials of the Department, and the Secretary, decides when a meeting should be held and outlines the general objectives.

2. A general manager is selected to set up and direct the organization for meeting these objectives. A conference secretary is selected to assist the general manager and supervise the clerical operations of the meeting.

3. A steering committee, composed of a small representative group of agency officials, is appointed to develop policy and the theme for the meeting; to advise with the Director of Personnel on the soundness of the plans and organization; and help conduct the meeting.

4. A chairman of an arrangements committee is selected to provide for the physical needs and comforts at the meeting. An exhibits committee is appointed to arrange for exhibits on personnel administration, with special emphasis on problems to be considered at the meeting.

5. Every agency head in the Department is asked to get from those in his agency, who should know, suggested problems and topics which need Department-wide attention. These suggestions are compiled and classified by the Secretary, then reviewed by the steering committee. This committee makes needed revisions and recommends a subject matter agenda to the Director. After the Director's approval, the subject matter is divided into enough major parts so that each one is suitable for discussion by a small work group or committee of 10 to 15 persons. These work committees provide the opportunity for most of the thinking and discussion before and during the meeting.

6. The subject matter agenda is sent to the agencies with the request that those selected to take part in the meeting review it and indicate their preferences for topics. These preferences are used by the steering committee as an aid in assigning them to work committees. A chairman, vice chairman, and a recorder are selected for each work committee. From this point on, these

work committee chairmen, with the help of subject matter consultants selected for each work committee, are responsible for further refinement and consideration of the subject matter before and during the meeting. The greater part of the first three days of the five-day meeting is devoted to work committee discussions. Practically all recommendations originate with these committees.

7. The reports of the work committees containing the recommendations are turned over to the conference secretary at the end of the third day. The clerical staff mimeographs and combines them into one report during the night and distributes them to every attendant by breakfast time of the fourth day.

8. The fourth day is devoted to a discussion, revision, and approval by the general assembly (all attendants) of all recommendations. All or part of any recommendations may be disapproved or changed or new recommendations may be made. It is a time when anyone may express his views on any subject under discussion.

9. The recommendations as approved by the general assembly are reviewed on the fourth night of the meeting by the Director and his staff. Decisions are reached at this time on what can be done about each recommendation. The Director makes a report on these decisions to the general assembly on Friday. Usually each person keeps a record of changes made and decisions reached on his copy of the report and leaves the meeting knowing what to expect.

10. At some of the meetings outstanding authorities are employed to assist as consultants. Dr. John M. Gaus, Harvard University, Dr. Roscoe C. Martin, University of Alabama, Dr. Lloyd M. Short, University of Minnesota, and Dr. Leonard D. White, University of Chicago, have served in this capacity. Each of the five meetings has been aided materially by one or more representatives from the Office of Budget and Finance and the Solicitor's Office of the Department. A technical consultant, usually from the Office of Personnel, is also assigned to each work committee.

11. Speakers are used throughout the

meeting to point up important problems and to challenge and inspire the participants.

12. The Director of Personnel reviews the approved recommendations with his staff soon after the meeting and makes assignments for follow up on each.

13. Three types of reports are usually prepared for the meetings: (1) A brief summary of recommendations with decisions and assignments for each. (2) A comprehensive report of all activities of meetings. (3) A brief report on the substance of the recommendations for general use.

14. The steering committee meets at least one time after the meeting to advise on the type of reports needed and to make a "post mortem" of the meeting looking to improvement of such meetings in the future.

### *The First Personnel Management Meeting*

TWO MAJOR problems became of such importance by the spring of 1943 that it was decided to call the first Personnel Management Meeting to consider them. These problems were:

1. The use of delegations of authority as near where the work is done as practicable. (For some time this had been a policy of the Department but the Office of Personnel was concerned with how far the delegations should be extended and how the authority should be used.)

2. The return of employees from military furlough and the resulting adjustments in personnel.

There were 135 who attended this first meeting at St. Louis, November 30-December 4, 1943. They came from every agency of the Department and were well divided between Washington and the field; 24 field and 25 Washington administrators took part. Of the 56 personnel officers present, 42 were from the field and 14 from Washington. The tangible results of this first meeting were 66 well considered recommendations directed towards the two problems. The following foreword to the report of the meeting sums up what was done and some of the more intangible results.



This meeting brought into focus our thinking and planning on delegations of authorities and post-war questions that we now foresee.

It brought representative administrators and supervisory officials together with personnel officers in a concerted effort to obtain greater efficiency in the personnel phases of administration.

The recommendations of the committees were well considered and constructive. Many can be put into effect promptly. Some will require action by other agencies of the executive branch of government or by Congress. Only a very few are not considered feasible at this time.

The increase in speed, the reduction of steps, the uniformity of action, the plan for handling the task of readjustment of personnel after the war, will very soon repay the cost of the meeting and give continuing dividends in efficiency.

The tangible results of the meeting are great. The results that cannot be measured, such as more complete understandings, fuller cooperation, neighborly working relations, will be evident in added strength in our organizations in the future.

What about those 66 recommendations? What were they like? What has been done about them? Of the total, 13 related to better placement and training, largely as background for insuring the proper use of authority delegated by the Office of Personnel; 22 covered the delegations of authorities of personnel operations—9 on employment authority, 5 on handling classification actions, and 8 on taking disciplinary actions. These 22 statements include a large part of initial thinking and policy which has brought about the decentralization of many personnel operations as near as practicable to the place where the work is done. Decentralization has taken place to the extent that in December 1951, 334 employees of the Department in 86 field and 23 Washington offices had been authorized by the Director of Personnel to sign classification, employment, or disciplinary actions.

Decentralized personnel operations have been one means of decreasing the Department's personnel workers—from 1417 on December 31, 1941, to 813 employees on December 31, 1951. This reduced staff is now carrying on an enlarged personnel program including more emphasis on

health, safety, employee relations, incentives, and training.

The number of employees of the Central Office of Personnel was reduced from 210 on December 31, 1941, to 76 on December 31, 1951, or a reduction of 63.8%! Although some functions were dropped during this 10-year period, several were added, such as review of delegated authority; administration of the Veterans Preference Act; Department health program; honor, cash, and efficiency awards; administration of examining committees and boards; loyalty program and security clearance for foreign travel; manpower improvement and utilization program; wage boards and class specifications were emphasized; wage stabilization program; and Point IV roster for agriculture.

Of the first meeting recommendations, 31 were directed at postwar problems, such as the return of the employee on military furlough; civilians with reemployment benefits; war service employees; length of work week; and retirement during the postwar period. The action of this meeting had much to do with the handling of the return of the servicemen and the war service employee. The whole adjustment to a peacetime basis was made a great deal more smoothly because of the thought and action of this group of administrators and staff officials in 1943.

This first Personnel Management Meeting was an experiment. It was not certain that dividends would be sufficient to justify the expense and time. The following paragraph taken from a resolution expresses the general sentiment of the meeting:

There has been a universal expression from the administrators and personnel officers who are here from the various agencies that this has been one of the best meetings they have ever attended. The meeting has been exceptionally well organized and conducted. It has been a great privilege to meet with the Director of Personnel and mingle with members of his staff and to become acquainted with and enjoy the association of our fellow personnel officers.

#### *The Second Personnel Management Meeting*

DURING the spring of 1945, the end of the

war was in sight with its problems of adjustment to a peacetime period. Many of the recommendations of the first meeting had had trial runs and needed revision. Other problems had arisen which were not considered in 1943. Also, there were phases of personnel administration such as health and safety, training, wage and salary administration, efficiency ratings and standards of work, workload analysis, qualification standards which obviously needed attention during the readjustment period.

The Steering Committee for this second meeting developed 10 major problem areas from suggested topics received from the agencies. Of these, 3—on delegations of authority, reductions in force, and reemployment—were a follow-up of the first meeting.

This meeting was held at Milwaukee, Wisconsin, December 3-7, 1945. The ten working committees, one for each major problem, made 129 recommendations. Of these, 10 were dropped after debate by the general assembly or were disapproved by the Director of Personnel. However, 4 were added by the general assembly, leaving a total of 123 which successfully passed the test of opinion by the 137 in attendance. Forty-four, or 36%, of these recommendations were a follow-up of the first meeting. Seventy-nine were largely new.

### *The Third Personnel Management Meeting*

THE HOLDING of these meetings every two years had been generally agreed to at the second meeting at Milwaukee. However, the Director reserved his decision because he felt that need rather than precedent should determine whether a meeting should be held.

1947 could be called a year of "belt tightening." The number of employees in the Department dropped 13% in one year—from 78,048 in 1946 to a long-time low of 67,850—with virtually no reduction in functions. The Office of Personnel had for some time emphasized better utilization of personnel, but this curtailment of funds and personnel pointed up the need for the third meeting on "better management practices and better use of personnel."

The subject matter finally agreed to by the Steering Committee and the Director of Personnel was organized and classified into 9 major problems: health and safety, human relations, career programs, recruitment, training, personnel functions, personnel administration responsibilities, classification and salary administration, standards of performance. The discussions at the meeting were directed more towards things that would improve management "over the long pull" rather than immediate corrective measures. This is illustrated by the following recommendations made by the working committees, approved by the general assembly of the meeting and the Director of Personnel.

The Employee Health Program authorized by P. L. 658 should be extended to all Department personnel as rapidly as possible; also responsible officials should actively support and implement the types and general standards of available services. This Committee asked that the Office of Personnel conduct a survey of the safety needs of each agency and recommend a suitable type of safety program and organization to meet the needs of each.

### *Another recommendation was:*

That the Department initiate legislation or support proposed legislation amending the U.S. Employees Compensation Act to bring it in line with present economic conditions and new developments in the field of workmen's compensation. Recommended changes should include:

- a. Increased compensation benefits for injured employees and dependents.
- b. Removal of prohibitions against an injured employee receiving disability compensation and age or service retirement at the same time.
- c. The establishment of a set schedule of payments for specified permanent disabilities.

This recommendation gave support to the legislation that has since largely corrected these problems.

The Human Relations Working Committee came out with a statement of philosophy on "Basis for Good Human Relations," and pointed up one means of insuring good human relations by a recommendation:



That supervisors shall assist and encourage employees to learn about their agency's organization, objectives, programs, and accomplishments, as well as such overall government matters as retirement, leave, work of related agencies, with a view to increasing their knowledge, their effectiveness, their job satisfaction, and their team spirit; thereby fostering better human relations generally.

Career Programs in the Department were given a boost by Recommendation 1 of the Meeting. It and another supporting recommendation read:

The Department should have a career program, Department-wide as to unity of purpose and generally made known to all employees. It should include:

a. Development by each agency of its own career program.

b. Stimulation of the integration of agency programs by providing facilities for voluntary placement in respect to positions common to a number of agencies.

c. Planned development of Departmental leadership through early recognition and placement on a Department-wide basis of unusually promising employees.

The Department should urge the Civil Service Commission to eliminate such regulations as prevent reasonably free movement of an employee not only within the general field for purposes of training and career placement, but also in other fields in line with the career program.

The object of these proposals has not been completely met. However, progress has been made toward making a Department career program a reality. The progressive thinking and action of this Working Committee gave impetus and meaning to this need.

A recommendation made by the Recruitment Working Committee has met with widespread acceptance in the Department and strengthens the career program idea. It is:

Give probational appointments to student trainees majoring in the sciences, public administration or other fields of study of interest to the Department, in advance of graduation, for vacation or other periods, to determine their fitness for permanent status by about the time of their graduation.

Better testing, more attractive examination announcements, publicity of important functions of the Department, improved salaries, better recruiting were objectives of other recommendations of this Committee.

The Working Committee on Training proposed that training be geared into the needs of the work program—by using current written work assignments and standards of performance as a basis for developing every employee—also that more attention should be given to training employees in the “art and technique” of working with people; that training be given to insure brevity, easy readability, simplicity and proper tone in written materials; that “we strive more vigorously to develop and maintain among Department employees a greater sense of responsibility as public servants.”

A more active program of working with colleges was proposed so that graduates would be better trained in administration, human relationships, and some of the basic skills such as written and oral expression.

The Committee on Personal Administration Responsibilities defined the relationships and responsibilities of the Civil Service Commission, the Department, and the agency. The Committee on Personnel Functions supplemented this by outlining the functions that should be classed as personnel. Continued study and research were advocated by both. A committee composed of Office of Personnel and agency representatives was proposed to continue the study recommended by the second Personnel Management Meeting to consolidate, standardize, and eliminate personnel reports. This was the real beginning of a move to simplify personnel paper work in the Department.

The Working Committee on Classification and Wage Administration recommended:

That the Department, through the agency chiefs, establish a policy and develop programs encouraging supervisors to make periodic reviews of job descriptions to keep them current and to use the principles of classification in (a) organization, (b) recruitment, (c) defining work

assignments, (d) training, and (e) preparation of efficiency ratings.

More study was suggested on the need to broaden the authority delegated to agencies. Possible use of interdepartmental wage boards was recommended. It was proposed "that the services in the present Classification Act be eliminated and a new series of services be developed, defining levels of duties and responsibilities and general fields of work." This was followed by an alternative recommendation "if elimination of the services is not achieved, redefine present grades and add additional grades."

Another recommendation said: "raise present salary ceilings and adjust compensation schedules to provide an equitable pay plan."

The following technique for developing Standards of Performance was proposed by the working committee on this subject:

Standards of performance should be developed in the following manner:

- a. Determine the specific task or position through careful study and analysis of the work and the conditions under which the work is performed.

- b. Determine the best methods and conditions for performing the work.

- c. Train the employees in the accepted method.

- d. Determine the quantity and quality of work that is to be expected from an employee.

These standards, when developed, should not be changed unless there is a significant change in the objectives, methods or conditions.

The Director approved it as *one* good means but not the only one that might be used.

Another recommendation was:

Each agency of the Department should be urged to conduct and report on a standard of performance study of various types of positions within the next two years.

#### *The Fourth Personnel Management Meeting*

THIS MEETING, held at Peoria, Illinois, September 19-25, 1949, was different from the previous three. The problems were classified by agencies or organizations which

control the solutions or have a mutual interest in them. Those things for which the Civil Service Commission had the responsibility were so classified and assigned to the "Civil Service Commission Round Table," composed of those Department administrators or personnel people who preferred to or were especially selected to work on these matters. Four Civil Service Commission officials also worked with the round table. Commissioner James Mitchell and Mr. J. P. Googe, Assistant Chief, Field Operations, were from Washington. Mr. J. A. Conner, Director, 7th Civil Service Region, Chicago, and Mr. A. H. Sonntag, Deputy Director, 9th Region, St. Louis, represented the field viewpoint.

The other round tables were: Bureau of the Budget; General Accounting Office; Public Health Service, Safety and Compensation; Civil Service Committees of Congress; State and Local Government; Universities and Colleges; Industry; and a Department Round Table. Each of these followed the same pattern as the Civil Service Commission Round Table. Subject matter was assigned on the basis of its relation to the cooperating agency or organization. Each was composed of representative operating and staff officials of the Department and officials outside the Department who knew the policies and methods of operation of their agencies.

This new approach had a threefold value: (1) It gave the Department members of the round tables immediate answers to many questions as they arose. The recommendations were sounder because of having been made in this atmosphere. (2) The Department people better understood the other fellow's viewpoint and developed a better appreciation of the restrictions under which agencies had to operate. They got the "reasons" for actions which would otherwise have been misunderstood. (3) Those from outside the Department got a better understanding of the Department's problems and its efforts to solve them. The concerned agency could act more readily on Department proposals, especially those that had been discussed at the meeting.

Mr. Charles B. Stauffacher, who at that

time was Assistant Director in Charge of Management of the Bureau of the Budget, commented in the following way in a speech before the general session of the meeting:

I have certainly been impressed with the broad approach to the personnel management job that has been taken here, and the broad grasp of that job that has been exhibited by everyone with whom I have come in contact. I think a representative of the Budget Bureau is always at a little disadvantage when he appears before a group of agency people. Sometimes, in the general scheme of things in the Federal Government, our priorities tend to differ from time to time, and on many problems with which we have to deal it is necessary for us to adopt diverging viewpoints. I do think, however, there is one thing on which we are in substantial agreement, and certainly the work of this conference has proved that to me, and that is that we have a constructive approach toward the job ahead, whatever that job may be. I certainly hope that it is the feeling—I know it certainly is the desire of the Bureau of the Budget Director and those on the Budget staff to take a constructive approach toward the problem at hand. It seems to me, particularly in the round table on the relations between the Bureau of the Budget and personnel management, on which I am not going to try to report, that the approach that has been followed there has been a most constructive one.

The General Accounting Office Round Table developed 9 recommendations. One of these was "that the Department name a committee to collaborate with the GAO in developing plans to produce more frequent supplemental indexes to explore the need and practicability for codification of the Comptroller General's decisions." Mr. A. A. Peter, Assistant General Counsel who represented the GAO on this round table, felt that his attendance at this meeting has been responsible for a much better understanding of the Department's problems and programs by him and his associates.

One round table was set up to cover related subjects where three other federal agencies were concerned. These were: Health, Dr. R. C. Williams, Assistant Surgeon General, Public Health Service; Safety, Mr. S. J. Williams, Assistant to the President, National Safety Council;

Employee Compensation, Mr. William McCauley, Director, and Mr. E. P. Herges, of the Bureau of Employee Compensation. This round table made 17 carefully thought out recommendations.

The round tables on State and Local Government and Universities and Colleges considered mutual problems and relationships which grow out of the numerous joint and cooperative efforts. Mr. J. J. Donovan, Associate Director, Civil Service Assembly; Mr. F. C. Peck, Executive Director, Farm Foundation; L. D. Goldsberry, Assistant Director of Personnel, State of Minnesota; and Dr. L. M. Short, Director, Public Administration Center, University of Minnesota, were excellent "balance wheels" for the State and Local Government Round Table. The universities and colleges were especially well represented by Dr. W. L. Burlison, Head, Agronomy Department, and Mr. John M. Boyer, Personnel Officer, University of Illinois; Dr. D. B. Owen, President, Bradley University; Dr. L. M. Short also served as a consultant on this round table.

The Department profited immensely from the exchange of ideas on personnel administration through the Industry Round Table. The industrial representatives, Messrs. H. F. Meyer, W. Kinsey, and F. C. Prescott, from the Caterpillar Company; T. J. Kiernan, U. S. Rubber Company; and L. W. Wagner, Standard Oil Company, brought to the round table some valuable experience and took away with them, according to their statements, a better appreciation for personnel management in the Department of Agriculture.

The Department Round Table took care of the urgent problems with 12 recommendations which were of interest only to the Department of Agriculture. This and the Round Table on Civil Service Committees of Congress were the only ones that did not have members from outside the Department. Representative George P. Miller of California, who had planned to represent the Committees on Civil Service and Post Office of Congress, was delayed and did not arrive until after the round tables had completed their work.

### *The Fifth Personnel Management Meeting*

THIS MEETING was held in Chicago December 3-7, 1951. The theme was "Improvement of Personnel Management." It was an effort at revising and refining what had been done to improve personnel management during the previous 10 years. The refinements included what research is needed; planning required to meet needs of the emergency; and legislation required to enable the refinements and revisions to be made.

There were six other major subjects which the Steering Committee singled out as needing revision and further study. All of these covered subject matter of previous meetings: recruitment and placement; training; employee welfare; classification and wage administration; work improvement; and performance requirements and ratings.

The committees emphasized the need for closer attention at the agency level to the selection and development of supervisors and employees. The greater competition for persons with potential has caused agency administrators to consider the recruitment of persons with qualifications similar to those required for the Junior Management Assistant Register. But getting employees is not enough; there is also the need for their very careful development. With emphasis on the training and development of employees, it was recommended that job descriptions and performance standards for supervisors should reflect their responsibility in this matter as the ability to train and develop workers is basic to successful supervision and a factor in the measurement of their performance. It was recommended that the Department restate its policy on employee training and development to emphasize the following principles:

1. That maximum utilization of manpower can only be attained through effective training and development.
2. That the responsibility for training and development rests with agency heads and line officers.
3. That employee training and develop-

ment must be adequately provided for in organizational and financial plans.

4. That training and development of subordinates is an integral part of the work of all supervisors.

5. That all employees must recognize their individual responsibility for continuously improving their own knowledge and skills.

The Department was urged to negotiate an agreement with the Civil Service Commission to extend the application of the principles of the Executive Development Program to other positions than those now covered and also to provide opportunities for top administrators to receive training in administrative management under this program. A Committee on Emergency Planning outlined actions which should be taken in the event the present emergency should turn to all-out war.

The conference endorsed the efforts of the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission to improve the public's understanding of the work of Federal employees and recommended that the Department aid in this program. The accomplishments of many of our employees are deserving of public recognition. Employees' morale and job satisfaction can be improved by a knowledge of a better public understanding of their endeavors.

### *A Decade of Progress*

THERE have been many intangible results from the Department's Personnel Management meetings. There are accumulated pleasures for those who have attended these meetings. They bring together people who have pleasant working associations and who have developed personal friendships through such associations. Each meeting brings renewed remembrances of worthwhile accomplishments of the previous ones and the intervening years.

The varied and difficult situations which have prevailed during the decade covered by these five meetings have challenged the abilities and ingenuity of operating officials and personnel officers. These meetings have been an important means of meeting these challenges. Personnel ad-

ministration has been advanced a great deal by the policies developed at these meetings which have been placed into effect in the Department; those recommended to and adopted by the Civil Service Commission and other government agencies; and those which resulted in legislation.

The table below gives some numerical facts about the five meetings. Some recommendations were similar or overlapped. This was expected since it was impossible to completely define the subject matter fields assigned work committees. It was considered better to get ideas from more than one work committee in these "twilight" zones rather than have no thought given them because of too strict limitations. These overlappings were rec-

onciled when the recommendations were carried out.

The meetings require a great amount of time for planning. Although the cost is kept to a minimum, some would consider them expensive. Nevertheless, they have been one of the most important means of getting smoother and more effective operations throughout the Department. They have been a means of removing many hindrances to smooth and efficient operations. Also a better understanding of the essential things in getting people to do their best for the public has been developed by all who have been a part of the effort. "Proof of the pudding" results are that since the first meeting, those who took part were insistent that the meetings continue to be held as the need arises.

Item	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	Average or Totals
	St. Louis 1943	Milwaukee 1945	Biloxi 1947	Peoria 1949	Chicago 1951	
Number Attending.....	135	137	150	148	141	142
Administrators.....	49	49	41	65	59	53
From the Field.....	24	28	18	16	27	23
From Washington.....	25	21	23	49	32	30
Personnel Officers.....	56	55	47	34	31	44
From the Field.....	42	42	31	24	17	31
From Washington.....	14	13	16	10	14	13
Personnel Technicians.....	14	17	46	13	31	24
Speakers.....	15	15	19	13	11	15
Consultants.....	9	13	16	33	12	17
Visitors.....	5	2	0	0	6	4
Recommendations:						
Made by Work Groups.....	74	129	97	91	105	496
Added by General Assembly.....	0	4	2	1	1	8
Approved by Director of Personnel.....	66	123	96	91	97	473



## A New Approach to Interviewing . ANTHONY ZILL

FOR CERTAIN types of positions in social work fields, the importance of social attitudes, certain personality traits and insight into behavior is continually stressed by employing agencies. However, in the competitive examination process, measurement of these factors has always presented difficulties. The limitations of the written examination are so marked that the interview is almost always used for this purpose. Yet even in the conventional interview situation, cultural conditioning which promotes a socially acceptable response to certain basic questions tends to impede determination of real personality structure and attitudes.

### *Situational Picture Technique Considered*

THE Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission has been concerned with this problem for some time. Recognition of the difficulties involved has led to extended exploratory discussion of possible solutions. In the course of such conversations it was suggested that we consider the use of situational pictures, indefinite in structure, as basic material. These would be presented to candidates who would be asked to extemporaneously describe what was happening. What they said and their related behavior would then be examined in order to determine weaknesses and strengths in personality and attitudes. Essentially this proposed procedure constituted an *ad hoc* modification of the Thematic Apperception Test so widely used in psychiatric personality diagnosis. The problems involved in selecting and/or constructing appropriate pictures and the surmised difficulties of interpreting results were so overwhelming that a less difficult technique was decided upon. The idea nevertheless has some intriguing possibilities and it may be feasible at some future time to investigate further its utility for selection purposes.

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### *Unstructured Situation Technique Tried Out*

IN ORDER to overcome the difficulties described above, a new approach to the interview situation was finally decided upon. No claims are being made as to validity at this stage. The procedure is being described primarily because it appears to be much more effective in accomplishing its purpose than previous techniques employed by Los Angeles County and with further modification holds the promise of proving of considerable value. Peripherally too, it appears to possess other relative advantages compared with the traditional interview. Not only does it seem to materially increase the participation of the candidate in the interview (he does much more of the talking), but participation appears to be much more voluntary and unforced. Secondly, since the questions asked by the examiner are primarily unstructured situations requiring the candidate to describe behavior, feeling, and thinking of various people, a socially acceptable, learned response on the part of the candidate becomes much more difficult. A more accurate picture of the candidate's own personality, attitudes, and behavioral insight results.

### *Test Used for Boys' Counselor Candidates*

THE PROCEDURE was first used with a group of 28 candidates who were being examined for the position of Boys' Counselor. The job itself is in Juvenile Hall, a County Detention Home for children pending court action. It chiefly involves recreational supervision of a group of boys, many of whom have personality and behavioral problems. Although informal counseling of boys is only incidental to the primary responsibility of a counselor, it is expected that the latter in his frequent contacts with individuals and the group will attempt to influence favorably the boys, not only by what he says to them but also by his behavior. In order for a counselor to be effective along these lines,

it seemed desirable for him to have some insight into the dynamics of behavior, to have a personality characterized by warmth, and to be essentially permissive and nonauthoritarian in his attitudes.

On the other hand, it was assumed that lack of insight and warmth as well as the presence of authoritarian, punitive, and aggressive tendencies would adversely affect performance. It appeared probable also that individuals characterized by indecision or a tendency to delay acting on an immediate situation would not function optimally.

#### *Requirements and Qualifications of Candidates*

SOME preliminary information regarding the background of the candidates will be helpful in evaluating results. The bulletin announcement for this position reads, in part, as follows:

*Requirements:* Graduation from an accredited college. One additional year of the required experience may be substituted for each year of college to a maximum of 2 years. At least 6 months recent full-time paid experience in the group supervision of children or in work with children as a counselor, case worker, teacher, recreation or physical education director or as an attendant in a recognized agency, camp, school or institution.

*Desirable Qualifications:* Specialization in sociology, social work, psychology, recreation or physical education is desirable.

*Special Information:* Appointees must be mentally, emotionally and physically adapted to work with groups of adolescent children. One part of the examination will consist of a written test of knowledge related to the work of a Boys' Counselor. Candidates will be required to attain a grade of at least 70% in this part of the examination in order to receive a rating in the remainder of the examination.

The actual academic and experience backgrounds of the 28 candidates who made the required minimum score on the written part of the examination were as follows:

<i>Training</i>	<i>Number of Candidates</i>
Graduate degree with a major in sociology, social work, psychology, recreation or physical education	2
College degree with a major in one of the above fields	8
College degree with a nonrelated major	13
Less than college graduation	5

<i>Major Related Experience (Last 5 Years Only)</i>	<i>Number of Candidates</i>
Boys' counselor in a children's institution or equivalent	7
Recreation leader, physical education instructor or equivalent	8
Social case worker, probation officer or equivalent	5
Teacher—children	3
Attendant in a children's institution	3
None	2

There were two examiners on the interview board. One was a Senior Deputy Probation Officer directly connected with the juvenile camp program in the County Probation Department and also thoroughly familiar with the problems and needs of Juvenile Hall. The other member was a civil service technician who had been examining in this and related fields over a period of years.

Specifically the procedure was as follows. Prior to entering the interview room, each candidate was asked to read the following case history and explanatory instructions.

### LOS ANGELES COUNTY CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

#### BOYS' COUNSELOR

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the following material. You will be asked questions related to this material during the course of the interview. These questions will involve the behavior of various persons mentioned in the case history as well as their feeling and thinking. During the course of the interview you will be permitted to refer to this material as well as any notes you may wish to make. All notes must be made on the reverse side of this sheet.



Tom is twelve and temporarily detained in Juvenile Hall after breaking into a grocery store.

He is an illegitimate child who has been reared by an aunt who pretends she is his mother. He knows his real mother as merely a cousin. Tom's "cousin" is scorned by the family, for she is an alcoholic and a prostitute.

While the aunt tried to do her duty by Tom, she did not really want the boy. Tom was, to her, only an added responsibility, another chore in her life. She resented the irresponsibility of Tom's mother and the additional demands of a child not her own upon her time, strength, and pocketbook. She took out this resentment on Tom from time to time, letting the boy know he was unwanted. Occasionally, she would feel conscience-stricken over her rejection of the child and at such times would indulge him. As Tom grew older and became more openly defiant, rebellious, and antagonistic, the aunt became increasingly bewildered, bitter at the child's ingratitude, and frankly anxious to be rid of him. Tom ran away from home several times; spent his nights in dubious clubs and pool rooms; stole now and then. When his aunt objected, he exploded in rage and screamed that he would do as he pleased.

As far as Tom was concerned, ever since he could remember he had felt there was something wrong about him. As a small child he had blundered into low-voiced conversations which broke off abruptly when his presence was noted. He soon realized that the family regarded him as a burden, as someone who did not really belong to them and for whom they had no real need or wish. Tom eventually learned who his mother really was. What he did not understand was the aura of mystery and shame that colored all conversations about his birth. Something was wrong.

In Juvenile Hall, Tom was cocky, defiant, tough, determined only to have his own way. On one occasion, when asked by a counselor to make his bed, Tom smashed all the windows in the dormitory in an explosive display of temper.

After approximately 15 minutes of study, the candidate was admitted to the interview room. A discussion of training and experience followed. The candidate was then asked if he had read the case history and orally presented with the following situations, one at a time.

*Situation A.* Assume you are Tom and have just spent your first day in Juvenile Hall. What would be your reaction to detention in such a place? What would be your attitude towards a counselor who tried to help you?

*Situation B.* Assume you are a neighbor who has just moved into an adjoining house. For the last two days you have been overhearing frequent and terrible arguments between Tom and his mother. Tom's mother calls him a bum and Tom threatens to leave home. What would you think of Tom?

*Situation C.* Assume you are Tom. You have

<sup>1</sup> The letters in the right hand column are time-related to the situations listed below and were used to help the candidate to properly orient himself during the examination. For example, the candidate was told, "look at point A in the case history." Immediately thereafter Situation A was described to the candidate.

just found out who your mother really is. You demand that your aunt tell you the truth about your mother. Your aunt insists however that you are her only child. How would you feel?

*Situation D.* Assume you are the Boys' Counselor referred to in this situation. Tom has just begun to smash windows in the dormitory. What would you do? Let's suppose that the tantrum is suddenly over, would you insist that Tom make his bed? Why or why not? Would you discipline Tom for breaking the windows?

With regard to the procedure followed during the interview some additional discussion is merited.

It was foreseen that in some cases, necessary limitation of time allotted to the interview as well as the nature of the particular candidate might result in no clear picture as to assets or liabilities. The rating form, indicated below, made provision for this possibility. Examiners underlined appropriate phrases or words and inserted additional comment where these phrases were inadequate to fully describe what was observed.

A<sup>1</sup>

B

C

D

## ATTITUDES AND INSIGHT INTO BEHAVIOR:

Punitive; authoritarian; insensitive; indecisive;  
lacks warmth; other defects as noted. ....

.....  
.....

Attitudes and/or insight into behavior not  
clearly revealed.

Permissive; understanding; evidence of con-  
siderable warmth; considerable insight; .....

.....  
.....

*Conduct of Interview*

DURING the course of the interview the candidate was not permitted to take refuge in a general response to a particular situation. For example, when asked what he would do as a counselor in Situation D, if a candidate answered "I would stop Tom," he would immediately be asked, "How would you stop him?" Eventually, therefore, the candidate would be compelled to describe a specific course of action. In all cases, after the particular situation was presented to the candidates, the examiners adopted a nondirective approach towards the interview. Examiners would take advantage of any pause to briefly summarize what the candidate had just said. In no instance, of course, was any indication given of approval or disapproval. At the close of the interview, the two examiners rated each candidate independently.

It was evident in many cases that candidates when first presented with a situation tended to avoid responding to it directly. Usually this was done by interposition of qualifying statements. For example, they could not reply because so many of the facts were unavailable or they were not familiar with existing regulations. In other instances, they stated they would not know what to do. In still other cases, they would refuse to identify themselves with Tom so that instead of saying I would do this, they said Tom would do this or feel this.

Interpreting this phenomenon presents several possibilities. It may be that reluctance to meet the situation presented may merely reflect a lack of knowledge. The candidate simply does not know what to do or say and stalls for time. It may, on

the other hand, testify to an inner uncertainty as to what answer is desired by the examiner. Again, the reluctance may reflect a basic unwillingness on the part of the candidate to become personally involved in an unpleasant situation. It may be that the delay is due to a lack of trust in the examiners which precludes furnishing the personal information requested. These are some possible explanations. Each of these possibilities has its special implications in determining personality structure. The author favors the interpretation that the delayed response reflects an unwillingness to face an unpleasant social situation. However, this discussion is merely suggestive. The true explanation of this phenomenon and its significance for personality analysis remain to be established by further experimentation.

In actual evaluation of results, no attempt was made to note a continuing pattern of certain attitudes throughout responses to all situations. Rather, marked evidence of a negative trait in responses to any one situation was deemed to constitute sufficient evidence of a general personality weakness. Such procedure was based on the assumption that negative attitudes are generally socially unacceptable and consequently, especially in the interview situation, candidates would consciously or unconsciously generally attempt to conceal evidences of such liabilities.

Some discussion of the more significant discreet behavioral manifestations observed will testify to the potential value of this particular technique. In responding to the situational questions some candidates were reluctant to accept personal responsibility for solution of the immediate problem posed. They stated they would adhere to previously established procedure or seek the advice or help of their superiors. To what extent such responses constitute an indication of personal inadequacy and insecurity remains to be established. Other candidates tended to become overly emotionally involved in the problem situations. Marked changes in voice, facial expression, and gesture characterized such individuals. In some instances such changes further constituted strong evidence of the presence of low frustration

tolerance. Some candidates tended to moralize or form categorical ethical judgments regarding behavior. "Tom was a bad boy and should be sent to Juvenile Hall." This tendency was closely related to belief in effectiveness and desirability of physical punishment as a retributive measure and its effectiveness in rehabilitation. In some cases presence of inflated ego and a feeling of mental superiority were indicated. In other instances responses reflected the presence of latent aggression and hostility. Lack of insight into behavior was evident on the part of candidates who reflected an exaggerated faith in the powers of oral persuasion as a rehabilitative measure. In two or three cases a marked loss of poise on the part of the candidate and the appearance of confusion became apparent as the interview progressed. In others an attitude of resistance developed as questioning proceeded. Here again to what extent these developments relate to lack of personal inner insecurity and confidence remains to be established.

In conclusion, the following incident, occurring in connection with one of the interviews, is offered for its interest value alone. Practically every time this particular examination is given, at least one person appears who took the previous examination. In some cases, the examiner retains an over-all impression of the candidate. Such a situation was duplicated in connection with the examination discussed above. At the close of the interview the examiner was left with a strong feeling that he had a markedly different and more revealing picture of this particular candidate; that certain undesirable characteris-

tics, not previously apparent, now made suitability for the position questionable. Apparently, in this one instance at least, this new approach had provided more accurate data regarding personality structure than had been furnished by the conventional interview.

### Summary

IT SHOULD be emphasized again that this entire discussion is offered solely as a basis for discussion and experimentation. No claims regarding validity are being made. On the basis of limited application, the technique appears to hold considerable promise not only in the social work field but wherever effective relations with other people are of paramount importance. For example, it could readily be extended to measurement of social factors related to supervision. In any event, further tryout should provide a more definitive picture as to limitations and validity.

Excerpts from interviews for four candidates are given below. Space does not permit reproduction of the entire recorded interviews but care was exercised in quotation to avoid possible distortion of the candidates' viewpoint. Columnar presentation is utilized to permit comparison of responses. These excerpts are deficient in at least one important respect in that they do not reflect those aspects of emotional tone evident in voice quality, facial expression, gestures and related behavior. In many cases such behavior was an important element in recognition of latent aggression, authoritarianism, emotional stability, and personal warmth.

### CANDIDATE Y

- A. I would resent it. . . . I have a feeling everyone is against me. . . . I have no trust in anyone.  
(re: reaction towards counselor)  
I couldn't appreciate that because it's a new experience . . . because as I reiterated, I've been scuffed around. . . . I have a feeling that I've been unwanted . . . not having affection. . . . I might be suspicious.

### CANDIDATE R

- A. I imagine I would be quite bewildered and quite aggressive . . . feeling I was rejected and not wanted.  
(re: reaction towards counselor)  
I would be rather suspicious of him.

## CANDIDATE Y (Continued)

- B. There would be possibilities for him in the right situation. . . . I'd have sympathy for him because I would realize the situation in which he is in and the other conditions that were thrust upon him . . . for his mother, well—sympathy and to a certain extent a reaction of scorn . . . failed to assume proper responsibility for her offspring whether legitimate or illegitimate.
- C. I would tell her she was lying . . . because I found out to the contrary . . . why is she forever misleading me as far as that is concerned.
- D. Would have to confine him into those areas where there weren't any (windows) at the same time I would tell him that since he isn't able to appreciate the fact that he has a comfortable bed we would have to deprive him of those privileges and confine him to areas where there aren't any windows.  
(re: making bed)  
Not at that particular moment . . . that resentment to a certain extent is still smoldering within him. . . .  
(re: discipline)  
Yes, by taking away the privileges that the others enjoy and of course confine him. . . .

## CANDIDATE S

- A. First, I would be a little afraid . . . resentful too . . . a new experience with that sort of thing . . . wouldn't care for it too much . . . there are various variations to it . . . he came from a home that was of a low level . . . not too much to eat, and so forth . . . myself, I wouldn't care too much for it.  
(re: reaction towards counselor)  
I wouldn't come into his confidence too easily . . . he would be a stranger somewhat to me . . . someone trying to pry into my business or something. . . .

## CANDIDATE R (Continued)

- B. I would think he was not too well disciplined . . . think his aunt hadn't been doing right either . . . probably mostly her fault.
- C. I would be rather suspicious of my aunt because it would seem that this time she had been attempting to pull the wool over my eyes . . . would not know whether to believe what she had been telling me or not.
- D. I'd try to realize situation he had been in . . . I would take him out of the room . . . wouldn't yell at him or be too hostile . . . would lead him right out . . . taking precaution not to harm him.  
(re: making bed)  
I wouldn't right away . . . eventually would . . . it wouldn't be proper to throw the thing in his face.  
(re: discipline)  
Yes, in leading him to understand the limitations which we will not allow our boys to transcend . . . not only him but anybody else . . . and of course I would have him understand that he would have certain privileges taken away from him. . . . I would assign him to certain activities like helping repair the window.

## CANDIDATE M

- A. Feel quite insecure . . . wouldn't like it.  
(re: reaction towards counselor)  
Might be belligerent, stubborn or just wait and see what would happen.

CANDIDATE S (Continued)

B. First thought would be that he should be sent to Juvenile Hall or something . . . he shouldn't be around to break my windows . . . second thought. . . I'm the neighbor . . . it might not be all the boy's fault . . . wouldn't know what was behind it . . . boy or mother could be at fault and I wouldn't jump to any conclusions about the boy.

C. I would feel confused as to what was the real story . . . would not know just what to think . . . some feeling of resentment toward her at the thought of her not being my mother . . . sense of concern as to where my real mother was and why she wasn't with me.

D. First of all, if he is in dormitory in presence of other boys, I would call him off to some privacy . . . there would be property damage . . . some type of restraint should be put on him . . . there are means of slowing down . . . (laughs) . . . well there are physical ways . . . I believe in Juvenile Hall they do have guards.

(re: making bed)

First of all would try to find out why he wouldn't make bed . . . what reason did he have . . . then try to show him point where it was for his own convenience to make bed . . . explain he is part of group and should follow in their same ways.

(re: discipline)

I would restrain him from some privilege he might get . . . or assign him to some extra duties in the kitchen . . . in the dormitory . . . there are many things to be found that are somewhat distasteful that we might not like to do but you know that's a form of punishment . . . to show him that if you do something wrong and you know it . . . you're naturally penalized.

CANDIDATE M (Continued)

B. Tom was a very undisciplined boy . . . giving great deal of trouble to someone trying to help him . . . mother wasn't going at it in quite the right way . . . Tom wasn't giving sufficient respect to parental authority.

C. Would feel quite frustrated . . . leaves me with doubt in mind even though I know it is true . . . now I don't have my mother on which to lean or my aunt upon which to lean . . . I would be very bewildered and not know exactly which way to turn.

D. First would call Tom to me . . . walk over to him . . . windows couldn't be broken . . . try everything you could before you put your hands on him . . . have to be awfully careful about touching youngsters . . . if he kept on, you would have to restrain him . . . send him to an infirmary or something . . . then talk to him later on. (re: making bed)

I think you should talk with him first . . . explain to him some of the rules and regulations . . . tell him after all this thing has to be faced and that you expect him to make his bed. I think perhaps if you talk with him a little bit, you might be able to get him to see the reason behind it and get him to get his bed made.

(re: discipline)

Well the windows are broken, I suppose rules and regulations of institution itself would have something to do with it. Tom would have to admit that it was wrong and some course of action would have to be taken . . . if there were a group of other boys there with him, it would make a difference of course . . . if he gets away with it, perhaps all of them will get the idea that they can . . . in that case you would have to get some discipline that could be seen . . . if he were by himself you might get more good in the final analysis by having a good talk with him and see how he acted in future. He would have to know that he had something to do and that it was a result of the broken window episode. With every individual boy it would be a different problem . . . the way I see it.



# Detroit *Does Not* Experiment in Arbitrating Labor Disputes .

DONALD J. SUBLETTE  
and CHARLES A. MEYER

## Editor's Note

The January, 1952, issue of *Public Personnel Review* carried an article titled "Detroit Experiments in Arbitrating Labor Disputes" by Charles Adrian. This article is published in response to a request from Detroit to present the city management's viewpoint on the issues involved.

THIS statement is stimulated by the article entitled "Detroit Experiments in Arbitrating Labor Disputes" which appeared in the January, 1952, issue of *Public Personnel Review*. It is written to dispel illusions which are likely to have been developed by the author's artful use of words which reflects conclusions rather than facts, beclouds the issues, and leaves unwarranted inferences in the minds of the casual reader.

The dissection begins with the title and the first paragraph. Both strongly imply decision and action by the city government after extended discussion and consideration. There has been no decision to arbitrate; the discussion mentioned, which was intensive and thorough but not lengthy, produced a decision that arbitration in the sense the term is used generally and in this article was inimical to our system of government. Actually what has happened is that at a light election the charter was amended to provide for arbitration in *all* personnel matters in the Fire Department. The legality of the amended provisions is definitely dubious. Accordingly, this city is not experimenting in arbitration and intends to test the validity of the amendment if its application is demanded by the employee group involved.

There is only cursory mention of arbitration being used in connection with

the relatively autonomous Department of Street Railways. Actually, arbitration has been resorted to no fewer than 13 times. Arbitration in these cases has contributed to an inflexible set of working conditions, excessive costs, and reduction of management control of operations.

The reasons for opposition to arbitration are treated superficially, ignore the realities of experience, and overlook basic principles of a system of representative government. Arbitration does more than "allegedly" interfere with the basic concepts of a merit system; it may eliminate or destroy the merit system. The article ignores the fact that a civil service commission inherently is performing the arbitration function. On matters of discipline, placement and other working conditions, the civil service commission sits as a board of arbitrators serving in the public interest. Similarly, the elected officials serve as arbitrators in the interest of the entire public. Such duly constituted officials can effectively be held responsible and accountable for their decisions. Remedies are available in the event of whimsical or capricious actions by a civil service commission. Actions and decisions of elected officials are reviewed periodically through elections. An independent arbitrator is not responsible or accountable in any way to the public affected by his decisions.

The objection to delegation of policy-making is more than a matter of words or form; it is a matter of abdicating responsible and accountable government. The elected officials of government have substantive responsibility for making decisions which determine the types, quantity and quality of public services. In arriving at those decisions they must be familiar with all aspects of governmental programs. Decisions as to pay of public employees and working conditions must be made only after consideration of all phases of the government programs and considera-

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tion of the interest of the general public. The incursion of an arbitrator, who has no responsibility in the over-all program and who will not be in a position to consider the problem as only one phase of an over-all complex of operations, inevitably means that a particular private interest will be substituted for the public interest.

Representative government is materially weakened if provision is made for procedures which facilitate discrimination in favor of any individual or group. Arbitration procedures initiated by petition, as would most probably be the case in government and as provided for in the amendment loosely described in the article under discussion, would definitely mean that there would be group discrimination. Our system of government has been successful because individual employees as well as groups have had the right of petition on matters of employment interest. This amendment would tend to reduce, if not eliminate, the opportunity of an employee for individual recognition.

Public service is a public trust for all the people. This is particularly true of the service of elected officials who are the public's responsible trustees. Arbitration reduces the trustees' authority and responsibility and essentially assumes that the trusteeship is limited to the welfare of the public employee group involved.

Proponents of arbitration in the public service ignore an essential difference between employee relations negotiations in public service as compared to private business. In private business management representatives have a strong personal financial stake in negotiations. Government is essentially permanent. Staff representatives do not have the same financial stake as do their relative peers in private business. Ultimate decisions on such matters must be made by the accountable elected officials.

The presentation of circumstances which led to the campaign for the amendment is something less than adequate. While it is true that the increase in pay of county employees somewhat exceeded the increases made to city employees, the latter group had had substantial increases. As is always true, the general average increase

in pay does not equitably reflect adjustments that were made—for some classifications the pay was doubled in the ten-year period. The starting pay of firefighters increased more than 62 percent in the ten years from 1940 to 1950. Other factors, both service and financial, produced the differential in favor of county employees. Moreover, the adjustments to the county employees were made without arbitration.

The statement of the amendment as quoted in the article and as it appeared on the ballot is much more innocuous than the substance of the provisions as actually adopted. The significance of the amendment is more accurately obtained from the following portions of the amendment:

In case there shall arise a dispute, controversy or disagreement between the said Board of Fire Commissioners and the employees of the city in the Fire Department in relation to wages, working conditions, hours of employment, vacations, sick leave, trial procedure relative to discharge, disciplining, promotion, or demotion of employees, or in addition thereto *any other matter, question, dispute or controversy* affecting any substantial rights, benefits, privileges or duties of the employees in the Fire Department, upon . . . filing . . . of a petition signed by not less than 50% of the employees of the Fire Department requesting arbitration of said dispute, controversy, question or matter, the same shall be submitted to arbitration.

. . . . .  
A majority decision of the arbitrators shall constitute a controlling and final decision on any of the questions submitted to and considered by the said arbitrators effectual as of the time stated by the said arbitrators which shall be not later than thirty (30) days after notice of the award excepting only in cases requiring the raising of additional funds by providing for them in the city budget and by taxation in which case the arbitrators may set a later effective date or payment date for the earliest feasible time. The said arbitrators may make awards of money immediately or retroactively owing even though payment thereof should have to be deferred. The decision of the said arbitrators shall be final and binding upon the employees of the Fire Department, the Board of Fire Commissioners, the Common Council and the City of Detroit, regardless of anything to the contrary contained in any charter provision or any ordinance, and any inconsistent charter provisions or ordinances are hereby repealed to the extent of such inconsistency.

It shall be the duty of the Mayor and Common Council of the City of Detroit to provide the funds for payment of any awards made by the arbitrators in the next City Budget and to raise the money therefor by taxation.

The city administration, not with acrimony as reported in the article, but in dispassionate fashion, opposed the amendment in talks before civic and labor groups and in statements to the press. Prevented by law from using any form of paid advertisement on an election issue, the city government was restricted to what were essentially personal pleas.

The employee group having no such restriction resorted to a wide variety of commercial advertising. We have a fine fire-fighting force and are proud of it. The department is highly regarded by the public. Accordingly, when storekeepers were requested to display large placards supporting the amendment, they agreed without hesitation or question. One form of the placard read as follows:

1. Protect your home
2. Protect your family
3. Protect your fire service

#### VOTE YES ON AMENDMENT—

Similar appeals appeared in the daily and labor press.

The article parenthetically questions the opinion of the Corporation Counsel which held that the Common Council could not delegate its legislative power. It rather irrelevantly states that the delegation was being passed upon by the people rather than the legislative body but ignores the fact that restrictions on such delegation are established in basic law to insure that political officials will be continuously accountable for their decisions.

The article treats lightly the view of city officials that the proposal would "invite chaos" and would pave the way for other similar demands. Your attention is invited to the fact that the proposal provides that every executive, legislative and administrative action and decision is construed to be a proper subject of arbitration. Moreover, the decision of the independent arbitrator supersedes the decisions of all other elected officials, administrative tribunals and of-

ficials, and is not subject to review by the public. Even if not carried to the possible extreme, a reasonable facsimile of chaos would result as could have been determined had even a superficial check of the contribution of arbitration in the Department of Street Railways been made.

It is also disturbing to note the conclusion that a proposal which establishes an autocratic power and encourages the establishment of an autonomous group of employees within the government does no "violence to the spirit of democratic government. . . ."

One can gain popularity in certain areas by categorizing as "strained and artificial" reasoning which concludes that there is no place for irresponsible autocratic power in our system of representative government but such recognition is not sought in Detroit.

The article by stating that "viewing the matter empirically . . ." implies that evidence has been studied and concludes that arbitration as provided is ". . . a practical plan." So far as is known no public official or record in this city was contacted to obtain any information as to the effect on quality, quantity, efficiency, management and costs of service where arbitration has been applied. This vicarious empiricism which led to the conclusion that the plan is practical ignores the experience and evidence of 16 years.

Effective public personnel administration which attracts and retains competent personnel and maintains high morale of the working staff is accomplished only by continuous attention being paid to personnel problems. Intermittent or sporadic attention of arbitration, not only provides no solution to basic personnel problems but is disruptive of the merit system and the government which it serves.

Accordingly, this city on the basis of 16 years of experience with arbitration is not "experimenting" in arbitration but is accepting the fact that its elected officials are responsible and accountable to the public, will make the decisions necessary with respect to the quantity, quality and conditions of providing public service, and will welcome the periodic review of performance provided by the ballot.

## Revolution by Decentralization. GLADYS M. KAMMERER

A QUIET, unheralded revolution in personnel administration has been taking place within the federal government during the last few years. The Civil Service Commissioner has decentralized a great portion of its traditional tasks by delegating them to the employing agencies of the executive branch. Much of the delegated authority has been redelegated down through the various departments to their field officers. A very real decentralization has been in progress through this process, and the locus of responsibility for personnel administration has shifted from the Commission to the agencies responsible for actual selection.

Decentralization of personnel administration within the federal government has been advocated for at least a decade. The first outspoken exponent of the concept of decentralized personnel administration was Arthur Flemming, former Civil Service Commissioner. Commissioner Flemming, indeed, took the first concrete steps to delegate as much actual responsibility and authority to operating agencies as was possible during the war and postwar years. More recently the Hoover Commission in its report on personnel management stressed the desirability of further decentralization of authority and responsibility in this field. This report postulated the idea of the Civil Service Commission as a staff agency, with the actual work of personnel administration carried on in the departments.

How far actually has the decentralization movement in federal government progressed since 1942? Any attempt to assay this development must first lead to an examination of the progress made within federal departments as well as by the Commission in delegating real authority and the degree of that authority over personnel matters to the employing agencies' field staff. In view of the fact that at least 90 per cent of federal employees are in the field service and of the further fact that criti-

cisms have often been made regarding slowness in the handling of personnel transactions, the degree of decentralization to the field man, "on the firing line" of public administration, is of primary significance.

### *Foundation for Decentralization*

THE WARTIME program of the Civil Service Commission furnished the foundation for decentralization. The compulsion for speed in getting people into jobs changed not merely recruitment and selection procedures but made it necessary for the Commission to delegate authority to the agencies to recruit, both on their own and in cooperation with the Commission. The Commission stationed liaison officers in the agencies, both in Washington and in the field, to expedite and make decisions on emergency recruitment, promotion, and other matters over which the Commission still retained legal authority.<sup>1</sup> Regional Civil Service Commission offices increased the number of local rating boards to recruit and select labor force employees at armed services' establishments. By 1943, urgency in the classification and allocation of positions had shifted 75 per cent of the work to the employing departments, and the Commission merely postaudited this work.<sup>2</sup> Wide latitude was given to all departments in 1941 on promotions, an authority later curtailed somewhat as a result of congressional criticism, with the result that the Commission established promotion standards and postaudited cases to ascertain agency compliance.

The trend initiated during the war was pursued as a permanent policy by Executive Order 9691 of February 6, 1946, which institutionalized wartime delegations to agencies. The Commission was permitted to establish boards of examiners in the field service composed of departmental employees and officers. It could also constitute committees of expert examiners, after con-

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<sup>1</sup> Gladys M. Kammerer, *Impact of War on Federal Personnel Administration* (Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1951), pp. 20-22.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 237.

sulting the agencies concerned, for recruitment of so-called expert personnel, to devise examinations for scientific, professional, and technical positions. Federal employees appointed to such committees had to be identified as of outstanding competence in their specialized fields.

Final legal culmination came with Executive Order 9830 of February 24, 1947, which directed the Civil Service Commission to delegate its authority to the agencies to act in personnel matters in accordance with Commission standards. The Commission was directed to maintain an adequate inspection system to check on application of statutes and regulations. Not only was responsibility for personnel management centered in the head of each employing agency, but authority was to be further delegated downward through each agency in so far as such delegation was compatible with the law and with economical and efficient administration. Agency standards were to govern the exercise within each department of delegated authority over personnel matters. In recruitment and placement work, both field and departmental service employees of the agencies were to be used to the extent legally possible. Federal establishments were further permitted to designate competent qualified persons from outside the federal service to serve on boards of expert examiners if such people were not available within the service.

The Classification Act of 1949 extended existing agency authority over classification of field service positions to all positions subject to Commission standards and review. A police power, however, was conferred upon the Civil Service Commission to revoke in whole or in part departmental authority exercised in violation of Commission standards. This statute set limitations on agency authority by requiring Commission approval before any position could be allocated to grades GS-16 or 17 and by limiting the total number of such positions in the entire federal service. Positions could be allocated to grade GS-18 only by the President on Commission recommendation. Here, too, the total number of positions was limited by statute.

Another recent statute, the Performance Ratings Act of 1950, in superseding the Efficiency Ratings Act of 1912, left the development of performance ratings plans to each department to work out individually. The old uniform rating system established by the Commission was no more.

### *Decentralization in Operation*

How does the program established by executive order and statute actually operate in the field service? Such aspects of personnel management as recruitment and examination, appointments, position classification, promotion, performance ratings, and Commission inspection activities must be examined to find the answer. Moreover, the effect of the decentralization program upon general agency program administration must be assessed, for the widespread assumption that decentralization is beneficial in all its effects may be unfounded in fact. For the purpose of this study the author interviewed field officers in a number of establishments located in the Bluegrass area which is a part of the Sixth Civil Service Region.<sup>3</sup>

For the greater number of field positions in the Sixth Civil Service Region, recruitment and examination for all positions common to the particular area have been delegated to one field installation; for positions common to one installation alone, recruitment and examination are delegated to that field establishment. Under this system, an examining board composed of major agency representatives in the area conducts recruitment and examination procedures with full Commission examiner powers. In the Bluegrass area the Avon Signal Depot of the Army Department serves as headquarters for this activity, and the board secretary who does most of the work is always an employee of the Signal Depot personnel office. For positions common only to a single installation, such as hospital attendants for the U.S. Public Health Service Hospital, an examining board consisting of the hospital's personnel officers carries out recruitment and examination duties. Such delegation was im-

<sup>3</sup> The author is especially indebted to Ashton E. Gorton, Director of Personnel, U.S. Public Health Service Hospital, Lexington, Kentucky.



pelled by regional Commission delay in discovering, examining, and certifying applicants interested only in work within a defined local area. The Commission regional office insures conformity with its standards by preauditing all examination announcements, controlling publicity lists, and furnishing examinations. Local examining boards may exercise a choice among several examinations for some positions. A comprehensive manual of procedures was prepared by the Commission for effective local board operations. Applications are sent in to area or agency boards, as the case may be, admittance cards issued, references checked, veterans' preference applied, examinations graded, registers prepared, and certificates issued by each relevant board for the positions under its jurisdiction.

For only a few jobs common to all agencies within a region are applications filed with and examinations processed by the regional Commission office. Specialized professional and administrative position registers have been established by the Commission in Washington for some positions, but if such positions are limited to one agency, registers are more commonly developed by the Washington agency office. The Junior Professional Assistant and Junior Management Assistant examinations are still managed on a national basis by the Civil Service Commission.

Defense Department field installations are able to obtain temporary expanded authority from the Commission more easily than can nondefense agencies. For example, Defense Department installations may reduce qualifications standards if they feel the necessity for such a move, and, if the local examining board fails to reply to their request for a certificate of eligibles within a defined period, they are empowered to proceed to recruit under the lower standards. In the Bluegrass area, subeligibles have had to be hired, and under a training agreement with the Commission such persons are placed in an installation school for a required period and promoted at the end of satisfactory training, just as was done during the war years.

Appointing power, traditionally an agency prerogative, has not been delegated

to the field in uniform degree but varies from agency to agency. In the Public Health Service, appointing authority has reverted to the departmental service for all field positions of the rank of section head or higher after a brief experiment in 1948 with delegation to the field officers of all appointing authority to field positions. Field officers, however, circumvent this loss of appointing authority by reorganizations to reduce the number of sections and section heads.

Position classification presents quite a different picture from those of recruitment, examination, and appointment. Allocation of positions has been retained tightly in the departmental service except in the Defense Department. The Veterans Administration, after a brief trial of delegation of allocation authority to the field, recalled this authority to Washington several years ago. Bureau offices in Washington, rather than departmental personnel offices, hoard allocation power tightly. In contrast, the armed services follow a policy of conferring allocation power on the commanding officer of an installation and trust his traditional disciplinary authority to hold the line on civilian positions. The Commission itself has not pushed federal departments into delegation of allocation authority. It is quite clear that both the Commission and departments have been handicapped by the lack of funds and staff to develop specifications and standards essential to the effective delegation of allocation authority. Classification, therefore, still remains a veiled mystery to field employees.

The Commission, in contrast, took a more aggressive lead in the field of promotions by requesting all departments to develop their own promotion policies. This work was, in turn, pushed down to the field for the formulation of initial policy statements by field officers. The long process of formulating agency policy from the field up to the bureau level is still in progress in most departments. The Defense Department is one of the few which has adopted its policy on promotion.

Performance ratings plans have been developed from the field up and are for the most part custom-made locally by each field

installation. Because a rating of "outstanding" has been considered under the law a signal honor to confer, final approval of this rating is retained at the bureau level in Washington.

For the Civil Service Commission's own field service the most important consequence of the decentralization program has been the marked expansion of its inspection and review staff. The auditing of agency personnel actions in the field is the inevitable result of delegation of authority within the limits of Commission standards, if compliance is to be achieved. In other words, decentralization is by no means a delegation run riot, to paraphrase the words of the Supreme Court in another context.

The Commission utilizes two devices to assure conformity with its standards. One is preliminary training in the form of an annual conference in the region to school agency field personnel officers in recruitment and examinations. No conferences have been devoted to classification. The other procedure is the auditing of field personnel transactions. Shortage of staff has prevented the Commission from attaining its goal of an annual inspection of each installation. Position classification is not covered by regional Commission inspectors for the reason that the Personnel Classification Division of the Commission has exclusive jurisdiction over that type of audit. An inspector spends at least two weeks at each installation, and during this period he takes a three months' sample of each phase of personnel work over which the Commission has postaudit authority.

Varying accounts have been given of the degree of common understanding achieved by these audits. One personnel officer believed that the inspector's position in some audits was arbitrary in compelling the field installation to go back to registers of eight months prior to the inspection and to use certificates from such registers because of Commission disapproval of short cuts taken in hurried "hiring at the gate." Another field installation suffered a revocation of all authority because of serious violations of Commission standards. Still another field officer, however, commended

the Commission for the thoroughness of its service and the constructive criticism offered by the inspector. This field officer felt that his agency received rebukes only in cases deserving of reproach, and that inspections were a help to him and his staff.

### *Effects of Decentralization*

THE EFFECTS of the decentralization program on the various aspects of agency administration in the field are hard to assess because not all persons accept decentralization as a necessary postulate of good public administration or an essential condition for improved personnel administration. Such results as are already clear, at least in outline, might be described as those affecting persons, positions, and the quality of administration.

Individuals, both employees and applicants, have felt both good and bad consequences of decentralized personnel administration. On the credit side, the process of examination and certification operates much more expeditiously through agency field installation offices than through regional Commission offices. It takes only ten days to examine and certify from the register to fill such positions as hospital attendant, and for defense positions even less time is consumed by this procedure. In contrast, the regional Commission office never consumed less than thirty days, and more usually sixty days, to deliver a certificate. Persons interested in obtaining work are naturally as pleased as are administrators by the brief time lapse between examination and certification.

Applicants for federal employment are now, however, somewhat confused by the necessity for filing applications and taking examinations in every local federal office in which they may desire to seek employment. Each field office is, for most positions, a separate employer. Federal administrators reply that job applicants have never boggled at making separate application with every individual employer. Nevertheless, there was something to be said for the old centralized application and single examination procedure. One cannot but wonder how many persons are lost to federal field offices by their failure to make a com-

plete round of such installations in their locality. The failure of the Commission to publicize adequately the new multiple application procedure has undoubtedly caused much of the confusion.

The new promotion policies, although finally agreed upon and adopted by some agencies, remain merely paper statements never observed in practice. Theoretically, positions must exist before employees may be promoted to them. In practice, however, often an employee is first deemed eligible for a promotion, then a position is created, and a position description with standards applicable to his case is written. This attack on the problem, the traditional approach, naturally catches both supervisors and another employee the next time promotion is attempted because of a case by case settlement of the problem in contravention of stated policy. The reluctance of the Commission to agree readily to alteration of promotion standards for an entire class of positions in part at least explains the adherence to case by case handling of promotion standards by field officers.

As to the operation of agency performance ratings plans, ratings of "outstanding" or "unsatisfactory" are virtually impossible. As to the former, an employee must be rated "outstanding" on every single point set forth in the job standards for his position, and his supervisor must offer proof to justify such a rating before the local Performance Rating Board. Under some plans the supervisor must compare each worker with every fellow worker, a procedure which places a formidable barrier to a rating of "outstanding." Furthermore, the assumption is held that if any worker were "outstanding" on every point, he should have been promoted to higher responsibilities. Under some agency policies, a ninety-day warning is required before an "unsatisfactory" rating may be given, and an employee must be given one month to improve his work after receiving such a rating. In addition, such a rating may be appealed. In practice it is much simpler to separate unsatisfactory employees than to wait to issue a performance rating of "unsatisfactory."

On positions the effect of decentraliza-

tion has been less apparent than on persons, for the reason stated in earlier paragraphs—the failure of federal departments to decentralize position classification work to the field. Only in armed services' installations has the local commanding officer been able to proceed on his own with allocation on reallocation, subject only to Commission postaudit. In disputed cases, such officers have had the support of their headquarters' classification staff against the Commission classification inspectors. Victory usually has gone to the military, needless to say.

The only real power over positions resting in nondefense field officers is that of changing job qualifications to meet recruitment pressures. In such cases, a negative order system of Commission approval prevails. After agency field officers have sent new qualifications statements to the regional office of the Commission, they may proceed to recruit under the new standards if no reply has been received within ten days. In the light of case by case handling of promotions so commonly pursued within the federal service, departmental service reluctance to delegate allocation power to the field is comprehensible.

The effects on the quality of administration are generally more elusive of analysis than those on positions and people and are slower to appear. Field personnel officers, however, feel that their agencies have obtained better caliber employees both because of delegated power to establish realistic qualifications and because they have lost fewer good applicants by expeditious local examination and certification. Field administrators seem to believe that added authority in their hands has been a challenge to their ability and has evoked more resourcefulness to solve problems hitherto handled by the Commission or their own Washington staff. Added responsibilities and authority, they argue, have developed latent administrative talents.

On the other hand, field people will admit that an appointing officer determined to place some particular person in a position can do this more easily under the new program of decentralized authority. There is little to stop him. To the extent that this

happens, the merit system is weakened or subverted. The only thing that can be said in extenuation of such a temptation is that any appointing officer with a reasonable degree of pride in the quality of administration in his organization will refrain from such abuse of power. But in the light of human foibles we must expect a certain amount of abuse under freedom.

Recently the Commission stated that departmental service recruitment and selection methods were haphazard and that they permitted "pressures for the appointment of inferior persons at times."<sup>4</sup> A sharp letter from the Civil Service Commissioners to all department heads stated their conclusion about agency hiring:

A regrettable result has been the staffing of agencies without sufficient close concern for the essential principle of open competition and merit.

While the agency personnel offices do the very best they can to recruit the best people, this haphazard system too often results in the appointment of the first available person who meets the minimum standards. This system also permits pressures for the appointment of inferior persons at times. The establishment of lists of highly qualified eligibles by the agency's board of examiners will strengthen efforts to recruit the best available candidates in accordance with merit system principles of open competition.<sup>5</sup>

The conclusion seems inescapable that decentralization of recruitment and examination to the departments makes possible an abuse of power and possible subversion of the merit principle nonexistent under the old federal system of centralization. The extent to which such abuses exist and to which they continue would be a deter-

mining factor in adjudging the wisdom of the decentralization policy.

Some agency field people complain of Commission failure to educate their departmental headquarters staff in the necessity of delegation, for such field officers believe the retention of certain controls in Washington forces circumvention and case by case handling of personnel matters in the field. Field people aver that they cannot speak with the same authority to hasten delegation of personnel authority as can the Commission. Such field officers also believe that regional Commission inspectors have been more helpful and sympathetic than their own agency inspectors.

The last few years have, therefore, seen a revolution in personnel administration quietly occurring within the federal service. The decentralization of personnel administration which started as a wartime expedient has now become a full-blown trend. Senate Bill 1135 of the Eighty-second Congress, incorporating the Hoover Commission proposals, would delegate to departments the privilege of establishing their own employment plans, subject to Commission approval and continued review, for recruitment, examination, certification, and selection.<sup>6</sup> Considerable pressure was exerted by the Citizens' Committee for the Hoover Commission Reports on behalf of this measure. This bill and the activity for it indicate a marked trend in thought regarding the placement of personnel authority under merit system procedures. It will probably require at least another decade to measure its full impact on the federal civil service and to evaluate its effect upon the building of a career service.

<sup>4</sup> *Washington Post*, January 6, 1952.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>6</sup> At the time of writing this bill had passed the Senate and was lodged in the House Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

#### Another Old But New Problem

LET ME caution persons grown old in active business, not lightly, nor without weighing their own resources, to forego their customary employment all at once, for there may be danger in it.—*Charles Lamb, The Superannuated Man.*

# California State's Merit Award Program . . . . .

HERBERT S. LYSER

INDUSTRY has had many a story published about its suggestion systems and the lucky winners. One employee, for example, received \$28,006.46 for an idea on improved handling of bronze castings, according to the press.

Public employees cannot compete for huge monetary awards with suggestions, but they can win modest cash awards for ideas which lead to reduced expenses. The suggestion system provides a means whereby public employees can easily transmit their ideas to management.

Suggestion plans need not be reserved exclusively for industrial jobs. Some 39 per cent of California's state civil service employees are in clerical and allied work. Many of these employees have made practical suggestions which are already saving substantial sums for the taxpayer.

An employee of the Division of Architecture saw excessive time consumed in the drafting room. He suggested using a patented pencil cloth, whereby the Department could eliminate the inking in of drawings. The old process took 40 per cent more time than the proposed plan. Result: the state saves \$5000 annually. The employee receives \$100, plus a special \$400 award through the Legislature.

## *How Plan Operates*

EMPLOYEES send their proposals to the State Merit Award Board on a suggestion blank patterned on the format of the State Personnel Board's Application for Examination. The Employee Suggestion form measures 8½" x 20" but folds into a self-mailer 8½" x 4", with the Award Board's address printed in full. The form gives specific instructions on presenting suggestions. When signing the form the employee agrees that use of the idea by the state shall not form the basis of a further claim upon the state.

• HERBERT S. LYSER is a Personnel Technician for the California State Personnel Board.

Let's take a look at suggestion #1611 sent in by a Fish Hatchery Foreman with the Department of Fish and Game. He mails in his proposal, attaching several detailed drawings. Following are the steps which lead finally to a cash award for the employee and substantial savings to the state:

1. The completed suggestion form is received at the Merit Award Board's headquarters at the Department of Finance, Sacramento. The suggestion is numbered, titled, and acknowledged within 48 hours of receipt.

2. A clerk reviews the pending and closed suggestion files to ascertain that #1611 does not duplicate proposals already received.

3. The clerk refers suggestion #1611 to the Department of Fish and Game within 48 hours of receipt, making use of a printed referral form which requests investigation and report within 30 days.

4. Suggestion #1611 is reviewed and accepted by the Department, which estimates that the proposal will result in substantial labor savings.

5. The Department's full report on #1611 is reviewed by the Secretary of the Merit Award Board. This is done primarily to ascertain that the Department has given full consideration to all important facets of the employee's proposal.

Processing the suggestions has been greatly facilitated through use of a seven-page form, easily inserted in the typewriter. Various segments of the form are used for such steps as acknowledgement, transmittal, control, and follow-up.

Because #1611 is an excellent idea, the Secretary of the Merit Award Board recommends the maximum cash award of \$100, plus a special award if approved by the Legislature. He writes up the proposal for the agenda of the Merit Award Board which consists of five persons who repre-



sent the State Personnel Board, Department of Finance, and the California State Employees Association. The other two members represent supervisory and non-supervisory employees.

Copies of the Board's calendar are mailed to members five days before the monthly meeting. Suggestion #1611 is shown below exactly as it appeared on the agenda:

#### *A Sample Suggestion*

*Suggestion #1611 (Richardson).—*This employee developed a swinging paddle rotary fish screen of a simple design with few moving parts and eliminates gears, ratchets, and levers.

*Comments.—*Department of Fish and Game advises that the screen can be manufactured for less cost than rotary screens; will result in a considerable saving in screen fabrication; and will reduce labor costs at hatchery pond installations because it will make it possible to operate with men in attendance only during the regular working hours from eight to five daily instead of on a 24-hour basis. They say that the labor savings at Fish Springs Hatchery alone will be \$3200 annually. The cost of this type of a screen is \$1200, which should be amortized over a ten-year period.

*Recommendation.—*A \$100 cash award, together with a Certificate of Award. Further recommend that the Department of Fish and Game furnish this Board with the total savings arrived at when all hatchery pond installations have been equipped with this fish screen. On the basis of this figure recommend a supplementary award, in the proper amount, be made by the state Legislature.

The estimated annual savings for one hatchery is \$3200, so if all 22 of California's fish hatcheries install the device the labor saving should be about \$70,400 each year.

#### *Formula Used for Making Awards*

THE AWARD BOARD has adopted a 10 per cent formula in making awards, that is, 10 per cent of the net savings to the state over the first year. Any amount in excess of the statutory limitation of \$100 must be approved by concurrent resolution of the

state Senate and Assembly. The provision for granting cash awards is perhaps more restrictive than that of most jurisdictions in the United States with suggestion systems. The Legislature of 1949 launched the plan on a pay-as-you-go basis; cash awards may be paid only from savings made possible by adoption of the proposals. Provision for merit awards is contained in a government code section which authorizes the state Board of Control to establish the suggestion system.

#### *Program Publicity*

THE MERIT AWARD BOARD has a full-time secretary who conducts the day-to-day work of promoting and maintaining the program. He travels one-third of his time, talking to supervisory groups in all sections of the state. Supervisors, in turn, are urged to train their own employees in use of the system. The Secretary presents a film strip with 26 frames illustrating the award program. This film was produced by the Audio-Visual Unit of the state Department of Education as its contribution to the program. More than 60 groups of state supervisory employees saw the film strip in the first six months it was used.

The Merit Award Board has published a booklet entitled "Let's Talk It Over," designed for supervisors and foremen, who are asked to help their employees with suggestions. The booklet states: "Remember that the employee is entitled to present his ideas without reference to any supervisor. You should not attempt to prejudge the suggestions in any manner." Some supervisors believe that the supervisory structure is weakened by not providing for the flow of suggestions through regular supervisory channels. Another point of view is that employees will not always feel free to make suggestions if the ideas are filtered through the regular chain of command. Suggestions for new techniques or new methods may be misinterpreted by supervisors as a criticism of management. When the program was launched, the departments tended to screen suggestions; however, screening is now discouraged by the Award Board. The Board's Secretary summarizes the viewpoint in these words: "Our efforts have

been to maintain an open channel from employee to the Board without interference or censorship by the supervisory staff and thus afford complete and impartial investigation of all ideas."

Supervisory employees are eligible to receive cash awards for adopted suggestions above and beyond normal job responsibilities.

The Secretary of the Board furnishes publicity regularly to employees' magazines, telling of awards granted. Bulletin board posters are sent regularly to state offices to stimulate the flow of practical ideas. One poster shows several employees with wheelbarrows carting off bales of cash from the Award Board. The caption: "They're not lucky . . . they just used the suggestion plan."

Some 15 per cent of the ideas submitted are clearly not useable. They are identified as fragmentary or duplicates but never as impractical. The employee receives a courteous letter outlining the reasons why his proposal cannot be used. Writing individ-

ual rejection letters takes approximately 20 per cent of the time of the Secretary of the Board, who believes that mimeographed rejection letters would stereotype the program.

### Conclusion

CALIFORNIA'S Merit Award program saved the taxpayers more than \$100,000 in the first year of operation. There are intangible benefits, too, in improved employee relations. The plan has paid its own way, operating on a budget of about \$10,000, which in the first year is only 10% of the net savings realized. The plan may be considered experimental, with the full advantages yet to be realized.

### BOX SCORE

Total suggestions received	
to 12/31/51 .....	1,705
Total awards to 12/31/51 .....	\$3,312
Total estimated annual savings ..	\$100,731

### This Policy Makes a Good Supervisor Better

**M**ANY employees make useful suggestions to their supervisors. Every good supervisor will encourage suggestions. If the suggestion has possibilities, the supervisor should help the employee develop it and encourage him to write it up and submit it to the Employee Award Board.

By actively supporting the program a supervisor can do much to raise the morale of his employees, and in many cases make his own job easier. Most of the suggestions that are adopted also result in better service or lower cost. Such improvements are in turn accepted as evidence of good supervision.—*Training Newsletter*, Detroit Civil Service Commission.

# PERSONNEL OPINIONS

• What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have asked two experienced personnel administrators to discuss the problem of establishing an effective promotion program. Here's what they say.

## The Question . . . .

*How do you develop an effective promotional program for a large-scale government operation which adheres to the principles of the merit system and also meets the needs of management for speed in filling key vacancies?*

## The Replies . . . .

PHILIP R. BERGER, Secretary and Chief Examiner, Alameda County, California, Civil Service Commission.

The problem posed in this question is answered if the agency makes use of well-recognized management aids that include the following:

1. Development of a clear organizational pattern, with job content and relationships defined, clear lines of authority and promotion, and adequate organization charts.
2. Careful forecasting and planning of personnel requirements, to avoid "emergency" demands that might very well have been foreseen.
3. Adequate personnel records, showing the training, experience, special skills, and abilities that each employee has to offer.
4. In-service training that includes among its objectives preparation for promotion, and perhaps an understudy program.
5. Development of good communications throughout the organization, so that all concerned understand the problem, the proposed solution, and how it affects each individual.

The final step, that of conducting a competitive examination when a vacancy has to be filled, need not cause undue delay if all of the preparatory work has been done well in advance.

Accomplishment of the foregoing program obviously requires the understanding and sup-

port of the chief of the organization. If he is a good administrator, he would demand such a program anyway, for better day-by-day management. With a clear organizational structure pictured on adequate charts, responsibility may be fixed, authority delegated intelligently, job relationships made clear, and pay schedules standardized equitably. The fact that lines of promotion also would be revealed, and employees might be stimulated to get ready for possible promotion, is only an added benefit resulting from this aid to management.

Advance planning of personal requirements is another management technique that fits right in with advance budgeting of program and financial requirements. The program budget has two phases. One is the immediate work now under way, or to be done within the near future. The other is a long-range projection, subject to change, but nevertheless useful in forecasting recruitment, training, and utilization of manpower.

The planning function likewise includes continuing study of present personnel, to note aging employees and those who will be retiring at early dates, as well as other probable staff changes. Plans then follow for replacement of these employees at the required time, with special attention, of course, to key vacancies.

Complete personnel records are a must in planning and executing an adequate program. Such records should include a full account of the training, experience, and special skills which the employee possesses. This information needs to be kept current, as individuals pursue further studies or otherwise add to their skills. Merit ratings or opinions of supervisors and others qualified to judge the suitability of the employee for promotion should be readily available and likewise should be reviewed and brought up to date periodically.

With this basic material—the organizational plan, a forecast of personnel requirements, and a useful record of the skills and abilities of the work force—in-service training should be undertaken to develop a reservoir of persons qualified to undertake more responsible duties when vacancies occur. Some type of understudy program might be included in this training, to give practical application to the other phases of the training.

Finally, the best laid plans will lead nowhere without good communications that make clear

to the personnel of the agency the reasons for all of these things. When employees understand that it is management policy to promote from within, but that this policy can succeed only with careful forethought and a vigorous in-service training program, their support and cooperation may be expected, in contrast to the dismal result that would follow lack of such understanding.

It should be apparent that the kind of program set forth here has many values beyond that of filling key vacancies effectively. Because of the pressure of everyday duties, administrators do not devote sufficient time and attention to planning. More time invested in this phase of management would return ample dividends in better operations, fewer so-called emergencies, and less difficulty in finding the right person speedily when a key vacancy has to be filled.

ARTHUR G. RASCH, State Personnel Director,  
Michigan Civil Service Commission.

An effective promotional program for a government operation which adheres to the principles of the merit system is one which places the best qualified and best suited employees in the higher level positions as vacancies occur and as soon as the vacancies must be filled. It does this in a manner and by methods that are recognized by employees, management, and the public to be fair, efficient, and at proper cost.

The merit principles controlling such a promotional program should be at least the following:

1. Vacancies in higher level positions should be filled by promotion from within the service, rather than from outside, whenever adequately qualified employees are available.
2. Selection for promotion should be solely on the basis of merit, efficiency, and fitness as determined fairly and reliably by valid competitive tests.
3. All employees who possess the basic minimum qualifications for promotion to positions to be filled should be notified and given opportunity to participate in the selective tests.
4. Salary rates of positions to which promotions are made should be properly related to rates of other positions in the service, and to the nature and difficulty of the duties and responsibilities involved.

Such a program should apply to all positions filled by promotion in the merit system. "Key" positions or vacancies may be considered to be those which if not filled properly at all times

close and lock the door to prompt, efficient, and adequate operation. Undoubtedly, supervisory and management positions are the more important key positions, and speed in filling them is relatively more essential.

We prefer, however, to think that any position to be filled by promotion is a "key" position since its filling is a key to some necessary operation. It is this, too, because its fair, proper, and prompt filling is a key to employee morale and efficiency.

An effective promotional program based on merit principles is as equally essential to management of an operating agency as to the central personnel agency responsible for that program. Therefore, the operating agency should be interested in doing its part in the program so that it can fill its key vacancies by promotion speedily and without delay. A promotional program cannot be fully effective unless the operating agency of government does perform its part. Participation by management can be obtained more fully through leadership by the central personnel agency than by formal requirement. Examples of possible participation are the following:

1. Management can inspire and inculcate in employees a desire to grow in the job, to get ahead, and to prepare themselves for higher level opportunities.
2. Management can notify individually all qualified employees of promotional examinations to be given.
3. Management can provide equal opportunities for formal training for its employees in preparation for service in higher level positions.
4. Management can notify the central personnel agency immediately upon their first learning of probable resignations, retirements, and other separations; often long before the final, conclusive notification can be given.
5. Since provisional promotions are sometimes not upheld by test results, management should make every possible effort not to fill promotional vacancies until tests and registers are completed.
6. Management can keep the central personnel agency informed of new and unusual factors in operations as soon as known, which may call for necessary modifications in the promotional examination program.
7. Management can maintain an inventory showing the most important key positions and alternative plans for their filling when they become vacant.
8. Management can study key positions on a long-range basis to determine their principal

elements, and can also study the performance of incumbents to determine personal characteristics, skills, and knowledges which make for successful performance in such positions. The findings of these studies should be recorded and reported to the central personnel agency to assist in the promotional testing program.

The aid which management of a large-scale governmental operation can give the central personnel agency in the development and maintenance of an effective promotional program depends upon availability of funds and personnel, legal provisions, interest, the urgency of necessity, and other factors. The central personnel agency also will be limited by practical considerations; but ideally considered, it can develop and maintain an effective promotional program by the following means and methods:

1. A complete inventory of promotional registers for each operating agency can be maintained. The inventory for each agency should show, for all promotional registers, the establishment date, legal expiration date, original number of names, current number of names, number of certifications made, number of appointments made, and other information.

2. Turnover records by classes can be kept for each agency.

3. The most important key positions and their incumbents can be studied for the purpose of determining the critical job elements and the principal personal qualifications essential for successful performance. This information will make possible the preparation of more effective tests.

4. As a part of the essential classification program, a "line of promotion" statement can be provided on class specifications to aid management in notifying all of its employees who should apply to take particular promotional examinations.

5. When, and to the extent, found necessary for key position classes which are filled by promotion, provision can be made that employees take the examinations whenever employees become eligible.

6. Promotional examinations can be sched-

uled on the basis of priority of need as revealed by turnover records and by a promotional-registers inventory kept for each operating agency.

7. Tests can be used which are fully adequate for dependable results, but which can be easily and quickly scored. Short-answer tests are preferable for speed in scoring. If they can be machine-scored an even greater saving in time will be realized.

8. Management can be consulted and worked with in the preparation and postappraisal of promotional examinations. This can relate to the skills, knowledges, and personal traits to be tested for, the parts of the examination and the relative weighting of the parts, appropriateness of test items, and, later, to item analysis and test validation. Such cooperation with management will not only improve a promotional examination program, but it will give management a voice in making promotions which are arrived at by objective means and methods.

9. Operating agencies can be given the entire promotional register for each class, and permitted to make appointments from them prior to certification and subject to postaudit of compliance with the rules governing the number and order of names certified.

The means and methods listed above, which management and the central personnel agency can use to develop an effective merit-based promotional program, are not exhaustive in coverage. Others undoubtedly could be cited that are in use by good operating and central personnel agencies.

In conclusion it should be emphasized that no means nor methods now in use or that can be devised will develop or maintain an effective promotional program on a merit basis unless the entrance selection process is fully effective. If the original entrance examination program is sufficiently selective that qualified promotable employees enter a government service, and if the service maintains adequate salaries and good working conditions which will retain promotable employees, then, and only then, will it be fully possible to develop and maintain an effective promotional program.





## THE BOOKSHELF



THE UNFINISHED BUSINESS OF CIVIL SERVICE REFORM. William Seal Carpenter. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1952. 128 pp. \$3.00.

In its inception, the drive for civil service reform was a phase of the general movement for more responsible, economical, and efficient government. It was not an end in itself. The spoilsman was to be eliminated and the public employee chosen on a merit basis because that was a more efficient way to do business. It was not because there was any particular moral virtue in competitive examinations, the rule of three, or other paraphernalia of present-day civil service systems. The civil service was introduced in the waning years of the period of de-emphasis of executive power and when commissions were popular administrative devices. Although the early laws recognized the executive's responsibility for the merit system, the civil service commissions achieved a quasi-independence or aloofness and executive responsibility was diminished. In the years that followed, civil service organizational procedures became shibboleth and the reorganization movement either let them be or was unable to affect them in a substantial manner. With emphasis upon examinations and recruitment, the civil service development stopped short of providing a proper milieu for employer-employee relations, for employee development, and for service to the operating managers of government. As this volume so well states, the business of civil service reform is far from finished.

This is a good book. It deals concisely with the principal problems of civil service today and it represents the mature reflection and considered judgment of a most qualified and experienced observer. William Seal Carpenter is one of those scholars who journeyed forth to accept the challenge of public office and for seven years served as head of the New Jersey State Civil Service Commission. A distinguished professor of government before he entered upon this task, he brings together in this volume the rich store of knowledge that the broad horizons of his scholarship proffer and the leavened wisdom of his practical experience.

This is a most timely book because it deals with basic and current issues of public employment policy and because in this period of mu-

nicipal surveys and state "Little Hoover" reports, the legislators, and the public they represent, have an opportunity to carry forward this "unfinished business of civil service reform."

The author covers five general topics in this little volume. In the first, "The Nature of Public Employment," the distinctive climate of public employment is characterized with some pithy commentary on veterans' status, loyalty programs, bureaucratic empire building, the attitudes of some employee organizations, and the budgetary process. In the second chapter on "The Paradox of Civil Service Reform" he comes to grips with the schizoid situation of the amateur bi-partisan civil service commission which to ensure nonpartisanship is bi-partisan, and which is neither sufficiently aloof as a guardian of merit nor adequately integrated as part of the executive's management team. Carpenter finds our system has helped recruit better personnel but has fallen far short of providing the chief executive with the personnel management services he requires. He is critical of those employee organizations who have tried to identify their selfish interests with the principles of merit, who stand for tests of fitness but oppose educational requirements and who strive to maintain and augment mechanistic procedures in place of qualitative personnel practices.

In his section on "Employer-Employee Relationships" Carpenter finds the best personnel systems in those states which have the best employee associations. He is critical of anti-strike legislation for public servants and pleads for adequate personnel relations machinery, including some limited systems of arbitration of grievances not settled within the departments. He is critical of employee organizations that play party politics but makes a forthright case against limitation of the individual public employee's participation in the processes of democracy.

The section "Education for the Public Service" includes a plea for a return to the humanities and a very critical view of political science and the social sciences generally. Dr. Carpenter would have those preparing for the public service careers "partake sparingly" of the social sciences. This reviewer can but say "amen" to much in this volume, but he must rise to the defense of the social sciences as

preparation for government service. We need more exposure rather than less as our society is so complex. The government servant must be aware of its complexity, of the implications of his decisions in this complex, and of the resources the social sciences afford in resolving social problems. Dr. Carpenter speaks critically of political science. He says nothing of the study of public administration which is certainly not political science but represents a synthesis from many fields of materials and ideas bearing upon the administrative process of government.

The section on "Administrative Control" is a vigorous indictment of the traditional bipartisan commission form of central personnel agency. Dr. Carpenter favors a personnel department with a single commissioner directly responsible to the chief executive for civil service administration. He is properly impatient with those who to perpetuate their own selfish ends cry "spoils" when this reform is proposed. He is equally impatient with those who would inhibit the process of getting adequate performance from all public servants and who would create excessive machinery and pseudo-safeguards for that small minority of litigious employees.

This book should be widely read. It is terse, meaty, and straight-forward. It says much in but a few pages and says it exceedingly well. —WILLIAM J. RONAN, *Director, Graduate Division of Public Service, New York University, and Director of Studies, Temporary Commission on Coordination of State Activities, New York State.*

**PRODUCTIVITY, SUPERVISION AND MORALE AMONG RAILROAD WORKERS.** Katz, Maccoby, Gurin and Floor. Survey Research Center, Institute of Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. 61 pp. \$1.50.

The study here reported is part of the important research program conducted by the Survey Research Center under contract from the Office of Naval Research to delineate "the underlying principles applicable to the problems of organizing and managing human activity."

The significance of the study and of the program lies in the careful application of scientific methods to problems that have too often been the subject of unverified speculation and unvalidated observation, going under the guise of research.

Progress in the social sciences has not kept pace of that in the physical sciences for three main reasons: First, the complexity and un-

controllability of social situations and the difficulty of isolating causal factors and relationships. Second, that the necessity for the application of rigorous scientific methods has not always been recognized. Third, that appropriate research techniques, including attitude survey and statistical methods, have only comparatively recently been adapted to these problems.

Of course, although respect for fact is essential to scientific work, the mere accumulation of facts does not constitute scientific research. The selection of significant hypotheses for verification requires insight into the problem. Since scientific advances are cumulative, there must be a painstaking building up of knowledge on which others can build. This approach is well illustrated in this study and the preceding one on "Productivity, Supervision and Morale in an Office Situation."

In the railroad study thirty-six high producing sections of maintenance workers were compared with thirty-six low producing sections doing the same kind of work under comparable conditions. The study examines the extent to which the level of productivity of these sections depends upon characteristics of supervision and upon those employee attitudes which constitute morale. The findings show that the behavior of the first-line supervisor is an important factor in determining the productivity of a work group. High productivity is not attained accidentally, nor by performing "human relations tricks." A supervisor is successful because of his concept of his role and responsibilities, his attitude toward his employees, and his approach to their motivations on the job. Hence, the specifics of supervisory behavior are reflections of basic differences between high and low producing supervisors rather than an easy means to increase productivity.

The high producing supervisor sees his role primarily as that of motivating workers to achieve a goal and creating conditions under which it can be reached. He spends a larger proportion of his time in actual supervision than the low producing supervisor. The latter works more in direct production and tends to see productivity in terms of work flow, quotas, and pressures. The high producing supervisor takes into account employees' needs and aspirations. While he is employee-oriented he does not abdicate leadership. He bears a supportive relationship to those in his work group. His men report that he takes a personal interest in them and is helpful in training them, both for the work and for better jobs, and is nonpunitive when problems are encountered.

The railroad setting differs markedly from the setting of the previous study of clerical workers. The railroad workers were all men, performing heavy manual labor, mostly living in small towns or on farms, with a median education from the fifth to eighth grade, and mostly over forty years of age. The clerical group was made up largely of young girls who were high school graduates working in a metropolitan area. In comparing the results of the two studies, there were six major findings consistent in the two situations.

1. The direct relationship between section productivity and the assumption of a leadership role by the supervisor.

2. A direct relationship between section productivity and the employee orientation of the supervisor.

3. An inverse relationship between section productivity and the supervisor's feeling of pressure from above. This finding was not statistically significant in either study.

4. A direct relationship between section productivity and the first-line supervisor's feeling of autonomy with relation to higher level supervision. This was not statistically significant in the railroad study.

5. A direct relationship between section productivity and the employees' high evaluation of their work groups. This was not statistically significant in the railroad study.

6. An inverse relationship between section productivity and employee intrinsic job satisfaction. This was not statistically significant in the clerical study.

It will be noted that certain of these findings buttress views commonly accepted by most administrators, although not always put into practice. On the other hand, the fact that intrinsic job satisfaction was not found to be related to productivity may be regarded as somewhat surprising. This may be due to the unskilled nature of the tasks that the employees in both groups perform. Persons with higher levels of job aspiration may express less satisfaction with routine work even though they produce more.

It is also to be noted that in neither study was the employee's over-all liking for the company as a place to work related to productivity. The desire to remain in the employ of a company apparently was, in these situations, sufficient only to stimulate minimum productivity rather than to account for superior performance.

From the standpoint of methodology, the study illustrates the complexity of the prob-

lems to be met in investigating the relationships and motives in even a comparatively simple work situation.

It is to be hoped that the Institute will continue its work toward building up a body of objectively verified principles in the field of human relations. This basic scientific contribution will lead to the application of measures, preventive and corrective, to improve the administrative health and effective service of public and business organizations.—ALBERT H. ARONSON, *Director, Office of Program Policy, Office of Salary Stabilization.*

MODERN STAFF TRAINING. F. J. Tickner. University of London Press, London, 1952. 159 pp. 12s. 6d.

In answer to the question, "Is there no book on training?" the author has prepared this book. The need for training is investigated with the problems that confront the administrator and the management in organizing the training of personnel in commerce, industry, and national or local government in Great Britain. The benefits that may be derived from training are associated with the various kinds of training techniques which can be used. The fact that certain main principles are common to all types of training is developed with their implications. The objectives of training are defined in regard to activities carried on in various types of organizations in Great Britain. The relationship of the objectives to the development of training centers and the application of techniques to the training of personnel are developed with relationships of management explained. Problems, elements, and aims of training in small and large organizations are discussed, emphasizing particular factors affecting each.

The use of top management officials in assisting in the training is encouraged. The value of a transition period from training to actual work conditions with a knowledge of good working behavior on the part of the student is emphasized. Refresher training is developed and improvement of training in subsidiary functions and the use of consultants in the training program is encouraged.

The importance of training in the office is emphasized. The background necessary to an office worker is compared with the requirements of vocational apprenticeship field. The difference in training techniques in a small and large office in relation to the training center is discussed. The importance of formal education qualifications with special emphasis on

the use of English, the spoken word, and training in special office techniques is explained.

The supervisor is considered primarily a person in immediate charge of the operative staff. Three skills required for successful supervisors are defined as: (1) skill in instruction and directing workers, (2) skill in handling the staff, (3) skill in improving working methods. These three skills are compared with the Training-Within-Industry program developed in the United States, with the relative methods of instruction used in both Great Britain and the United States discussed in detail and compared with each other. The value of vocational and technical knowledge on the part of the supervisor is analyzed with the resulting implication that the supervisor can be successful with a wider appreciation of the operation which he is supervising than an understanding of the correct performance of it. In the supervision of staff members, the supervisor must know the essential facts about the personnel organization of his concern and, more important, must have a basic knowledge of the principles of human behavior in order to successfully carry out his own objectives.

The importance of a thorough knowledge of communications systems is pointed out in regard to supervisor development. The supervisor's handbook as an informational device is discussed.

The generalization is made that supervision is concerned with individual operations and that management is concerned with group action and collective organization, with a certain amount of overlapping between management and supervision.

Education for management is discussed in relation to reports of special committees in this field. Personnel management is associated with all types of management activities and as such is studied as a subject on general lines. The use of conference techniques and study of personnel management is discussed.

The training officer is responsible for the organization of training and for the instruction of trainees and must be clearly responsible for the program. Top management support is essential to the successful operation of a program and close liaison must be maintained with the personnel office and other organizations such as employee organizations associated with the complete program. Joint consultant committees should be used for advice and assistance.

Various training methods are discussed with their adaptation to the student himself. Modern concepts of adult education and human relations in training the student are necessary.

Course methods, teaching methods, and techniques of presentation should be developed in accordance with modern training techniques. Practical training should be stressed as much as possible.

The development of training staff is of prime importance. Instructors must be carefully selected on the basis of background, experience, and education. Knowledge of the job and ability to impart it is very important. The proper training of instructors is necessary, making use of best teacher training techniques in such development, with as much practical teaching experience under supervision given as is possible. Great importance should be placed on the individual abilities and characteristics of each member of the training staff.

Management training is necessary to give advanced training over and above the supervisory level to senior staff and management executives. Administrative training is of such a nature that it contributes directly to the administrative growth of advanced trainees. Such training is compared to American university training in business education and public administration. In Great Britain, management courses are postgraduate in nature or on an institute basis. The importance of continuity in such programs is emphasized with the result that a well-rounded administrator in government service or private service is obtained.

A bibliography of current materials of value to training officers is also included in the book. —CHARLES T. KLEIN, *Director, Public Employee Training, New York State.*

ESSENTIALS IN INTERVIEWING. Anne F. Fenlason. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1952. 352 pp. \$4.00.

Professional social workers have long been justifiably renowned for their skill in case work interviewing. In her book, *Essentials in Interviewing*, published posthumously, Anne F. Fenlason, a teacher and eminent social worker, has collated many of the most important findings and assumptions of the related areas of behavioristic psychology, sociology, anthropology, ethics, and psychiatry and has related them effectively to the job of professional interviewing. While this book has a direct case work slant and most of its fine examples are drawn from social case work, the book carries a valuable message for people in any field where interviewing is a tool.

To the best of this reviewer's knowledge, no other book on interviewing has presented so broad a background of fundamentals for

training in interviewing nor such a wealth of pertinent actual examples of interviewing dialogues. These examples with the analyses and questions for study make the book an exceptional text on the subject for students and yet provide a needed reference for improving skills and techniques of experienced interviewers.

The author has sketched the cultural subject matter and prerequisite educational equipment and philosophy which successful interviewing demands—areas which, instead of one well documented chapter, should require a dozen tomes. She tries to analyze the process of interviewing into its component skills, processes, structure, and techniques. While she argues for objectivity and enlightens these difficult disciplines she, as others, concludes that "understanding the other fellow" and the "motives, attitudes, and personality of the interviewer himself" are finally of greatest import. There can be no "rules for interviewing."

While the author recognizes the significance of nondirective or case centered interviewing and counseling, the book contains no bonafide examples of this method. As an aerial view of interviewing this omission represents the principal weakness of the book. There may be some danger, too, that the beginning student who studies this fine text may conclude that he has mastered all the arts of interviewing through its perusal. It should, as the author no doubt intended, lead him to wider and deeper investigation leading to an understanding of human beings and the social sciences about them.

The first part of the book is concerned with the meaning of the interviewer's own general culture and also with how the cultural environment of the interviewer affects personality and behavior. Also presented are analyses of typical interviews to show how they move to good or poor results and some penetrating observations and examples of proper attitudes and philosophy for the interviewer.

The second part is composed entirely of verbatim interviews with questions for their study. This section alone recommends the work as a "must" reference or text for library or classroom for all social work students. For those in public or government service where interviewing is always one of the vital tools in the technician's or administrator's kit, this book should be read and discussed for its discerning insight into an area which all too often has been taken for granted or has had the "once over lightly" in training. WILLARD E. PARKER, *Personnel Management Consultants*.

## BOOK AND PAMPHLET NOTES

**PUBLIC PERSONNEL GLOSSARY.** W. Richard Lomax. Indiana University, Institute of Training for Public Service, Bloomington, Indiana, 1950. 40 pp. \$1.00.

This glossary gives definitions for a selected group of words and phrases used most frequently by technicians and administrators in government personnel administration. It was compiled to standardize terminology for students and those working in the field.

**PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION: A Manual and Bibliography.** Russell H. Ewing. Civilian Personnel Division, Air Force Flight Test Center, Edwards Air Force Base, Department of the Air Force, Edwards, California, 1952, 142 pp.

The objectives of this manual are (1) to provide a logical, balanced, up-to-date outline of the thought content of a general course in public personnel administration for either the undergraduate or the graduate divisions of a college or university; (2) to supplement but not supplant the materials found in textbooks, source books, handbooks, and casebooks now available; (3) to gear the material to such recent basic sources as court decisions, executive orders, regulations, and directives dealing with public personnel administration; (4) to provide instructors with the practical information their students need to pass civil service examinations in the personnel field, and to carry on personnel functions; (5) to provide a systematic manual of instruction for the training divisions in civil service commissions, in the regular departments of governments, and in the Departments of the Army, Navy, and the Air Force.

**EMPLOYMENT AND RETIREMENT IN AN AGING POPULATION—A Bibliography.** Arthur N. Turner, Harvard University, Graduate School of Business Administration, Soldiers Field, Boston 63, Massachusetts, 1952. 50 pp. \$1.00.

A selection from a larger bibliography collected for a research project concerning the industrial implications of increasing longevity, with emphasis on the problems, activities, and attitudes of men and women who continue to work beyond the ages at which many people retire. This bibliography is designed to assist others working on problems in this general field.



**STAFF REPORTING.** Isabel E. P. Menzies and Dr. E. Anstey. Institute of Public Administration, Haldane House, 76A New Cavendish Street, London, W.2, George Allen & Unwin Ltd., London, 1951, 95 pp., 10s. 6d.

The term "staff reporting" as used by the British means the assessment of the efficiency of an individual in his present job, and his suitability for another job. This book gives an account of the development of staff reporting in the United Kingdom Civil Service and of the practical difficulties that have to be faced in any organization using staff reports. The book describes forms and methods used, the training of supervisors in assessing staff, and makes suggestions for possible improvement. Included in the appendix are samples of forms and reports.

**THE MUNICIPAL YEAR BOOK, 1952.** The International City Managers' Association. 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois, 1952, 604 pp., \$10.00.

The chief purpose of the Municipal Year

Book published by ICMA, and now in its nineteenth year, is to provide municipal officials with information on the current problems of cities throughout the country, with facts and statistics on individual city activities, and with analyses of trends by population groups. Many of the sections are brought up to date and repeated year after year, and certain types of material are published in one edition only.

Among the regular features are forms of city government, how the mayor and city council are selected, utilities owned and operated, salaries of chief municipal officials, pay rates for selected city jobs, number of city employees and payroll, personnel organization, working conditions, retirement systems, reporting to the public, city planning data, financial statistics, parking lots, fire and police data, directories of city officials, and model municipal ordinances.

New sections in the 1952 Year Book present individual city data on traffic safety and electric utilities and on revenue, expenditure, and debt for cities of 5,000 to 25,000.

### Do We Sometimes Forget to Remember?

**P**ERSONNEL techniques are a means to an end, not an end in themselves. In personnel work we serve the operating side of government which, in turn, serves the public. Let's not become so absorbed in the elaboration of personnel techniques that we forget the importance of self-education and self-development of ourselves and the people in our organizations who work for the government.

Hiring and firing procedures with which personnel work is primarily concerned should be brief, quick, and practical as well as fair and humane. We must combat the tendency to provide for appeals of every type of personnel action at every level of administration. Another thing personnel people must keep always in mind is that our function is not to provide good jobs for people but to get the work done. Of course we know that good treatment of employees helps us to give good public service. Everything we do personnel-wise should be based on individual needs rather than on cut and dried formulas.

The older workers in government should assume some of the responsibility for impressing upon newer workers the importance of their duties and a sense of pride that they are serving the American people, not any one group, but the whole people.—*Frances Perkins*, U.S. Civil Service Commission.

# Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the  
Public Personnel Field

## Personnel Administration

GERMAIN, DAVID E., "Incentives in the Executive Branch in U.S. Government Employment." *Advanced Management*, December, 1951.—Incentives for good management as related to other factors are studied in positions in the \$3,100 to \$14,000 level. Specific people and situations require specific analysis which is difficult in that all factors are not known nor what degree of interdependency exists amongst variables. The good manager cultivates the ability to recognize emotional desires and use appropriate incentives to reward subordinates as they succeed in performance required. In private enterprise, the profit motive is prominent in motivating the employee. Since measurements in dollar units are highly objective, they provide a substitute for subjective human evaluations. Insurance of recognition for good performance is a powerful incentive. Government exists for a different purpose and offers employment characterized by function, law, and regulation which competes little with private industry. In job analysis, job functions should be well defined to measure performance. Agency classification personnel frequently are not sufficiently trained so that inequities result causing dissatisfaction. In recruitment for classified jobs, a small fee would eliminate those who make applications with little regard for the resulting cost. "Unassembled examination" procedure has merit as a screening device but is inadequate since applications are graded rather than the persons they represent. Evaluation of private industry experience by personnel with government backgrounds is an obstacle to an influx of persons from private industry. Performance standards given to the incumbent in the job can be an incentive to do good work and serves to clarify in the executive's mind just what he does expect so that he can rate his subordinate's performance objectively. Merit rating results determine pay raises and promotions. The greatest objectivity should be used to maximize the incentive aspect. A system of cash awards for suggestions devised by the Civil Service Commission, has cost-reducing and incentive-producing results. Exchange of ideas and personnel should be encouraged between government, private industry, and other institutions for mutual benefits from advances in scientific management. Results obtained from liaison and research should be used in

agency training programs. A pilot program should be started in one agency to serve as a proving ground and have continual evaluation of results by joint committees with permanent Civil Service Commission members.—*Wendell H. Russell.*

EMMERICH, HERBERT, "A Scandal in Utopia." *Public Administration Review*, Winter, 1952.—The recent disclosures of serious irregularities in the management of our national revenue collecting system should not pass unnoticed in the pages of the journal of *The Public Administration Review*, for those of us who constitute its membership cannot fail to be aroused by the apparent deterioration of an administrative service which has enjoyed a high reputation. Those engaged in public service must not allow government work as a vocation to be libeled by failing to supply facts when exaggerated and sensational generalizations are drawn from specific instances of wrongdoing, nor fail to admit the serious nature of these occurrences, the need for their correction, and the threat they constitute to the reputation and prestige of public administration. It is important to put the current revelations in proper perspective not only to insure a fair interpretation of their meaning abroad but also to gain the maximum benefit for the improvement of the public service and morale at home. We have come a long way in increasing the respect of citizens for the public service and in raising the standards which they expect it to uphold. The fact that we have reacted so indignantly to the present crop of disclosures is evidence of the high standard of expectation we have in regard to the integrity of public servants. In a country like the United States, with its commitment to the principles of individual freedom and development of private enterprise, public administration cannot operate in a vacuum. It must touch, and be touched by, private interests. In a democracy the public service must also operate in a political atmosphere. Members of Congress have the right and the duty to scrutinize and review both government policy and practices. The positive and less glamorized and publicized trend of a really astonishing amount of improvement at all levels of government that has taken place since 1945 in postwar public administration in the United States is as clearly identifiable as the negative one of a "letdown"

in the standards of public service and in citizen morale that has occurred after other wars in our history. However, in our cities there has been a veritable upsurge of administrative and governmental improvement. Citizen organizations and professional associations of public officials have both contributed to this progressive trend. Even at the much flagellated federal level, the postwar period has been, on balance, one of progress. The positive trend in public administration can be achieved by accelerating the rate of putting into practice the things we already know about the art and science of administration and by accelerating the rate of practical research and invention on the points on which we are ignorant. (Article contains two quotations from recent pronouncements of men in high office and the President's Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1952.)—*Ullmont L. James.*

LT. COL. L. URWICK, O.B.E., M.C., M.A., etc. "Fitting in the Specialist Without Antagonizing the Line." *Advanced Management*, January, 1952.—There should be a place in every shop for the specialist and the foreman or departmental manager but their relationship is not always harmonious. The object of this paper is to examine briefly "why this is so and to suggest . . . means by which the specialist can avoid what often appears to be the inevitable friction." The introduction of the specialist involves (1) a change in the general scheme of things—and changes are always resented, (2) the idea of the specialist is a relatively new concept, (3) the specialist is apt to be "a different kind of creature not easily understood by his 'line' colleagues." Since the specialist is management's own creation, the resentment comes from labor generally and the foreman in particular. The specialists were regarded as being of a different breed from the rest of labor—university graduates speaking a different language and with different social interests. As long as they remained in the research laboratories and did not venture onto the shop floors there was no particular concern since the living pattern in the shop was not disturbed. However, with the introduction of "time study and methods engineering the bright young men began to invade the shop floor." Thus, as scientific management became a matter of analyzing working processes on the shop floor it became evident to the worker and the foreman alike that there was a new permanent resident, which began to alter the social pattern. The foreman entertained doubts of his

authority over the workers and indeed, "he asks himself, why the hell the specialist should know more than he does about a job he has been doing for half a lifetime?". This reaction on the part of the line executive seems to be the result of just plain fear—a fear that he will be held responsible, that is accountable, for getting results within a defined area without having the necessary authority. "There is nothing more uncomfortable than being held accountable for anything when you have not the authority to control all the facts in the situation." Obviously, the way of overcoming this situation is to remove the fear of the line executive by defining much more precisely the specialized authority of the specialists and the direct authority of the line executive. To define the specialist's authority as purely advisory is quite inadequate because it must be evident to all that management does not spend large sums of money on expensive specialists and have line managers reject all and sundry improvements suggested. Rather, they must be appointed as a result of definite organization policy in order that their specialized knowledge will provide benefits to the whole undertaking. On the other hand, it is clear that there must be no interference with the line of command, that is the direct authority of the foreman over his subordinates. "No man should be asked to serve 'two masters.'" The authority of the specialist then is indirect and operates through the line superior with his approval and agreement. This does not mean that in all situations action can only be taken by climbing laboriously up the ladder, across the top and down another. "Once a specialist has won the confidence of a line executive that he understands and recognizes that executive's line authority over his subordinates and has no idea or intention of infringing it, he can do 90% of his work direct." Only when difficulty arises should the formal lines of authority be observed. It cannot be emphasized too strongly, that the use of "official channels" is not the desirable way of operating but rather this is a "safeguard when personal relations break down." Faith and trust between individuals is the keynote. Time is required for the specialist to build up confidence and trust on the part of the workers and foreman. Management must not expect results from the specialist until such time has elapsed that will enable him to operate through unofficial channels with the approval and faith of workers and foremen behind him.—*Kenneth R. J. Scobie.*

### Classification

ERTINGTON, JULIUS E., "Injecting Realism into Classification." *Personnel Administration*, March, 1952.—Three problem areas are indicative of existing inflexible statutory requirements of the federal government. (1) The classification system assumes that a sufficient number of job applicants will be readily available in all occupational categories and that the vertical and horizontal relationships established between positions will not be affected by the condition of the labor market. Experience has demonstrated these concepts to be unworkable. For example, though the positions may be graded accurately, job applicants may be reluctant to accept federal employment when other employers offer higher salaries. As a result, personnel officers frequently become "realistic" and raise the grades and salaries of positions in the hard-to-recruit categories. Rather than compelling the personnel officer to resort to imagined work assignments, it may be better to recognize the realities of the problem and to permit the Civil Service Commission (by legislation) to authorize a recruiting bonus to the positions affected for the duration of the shortage. (2) Budgetary limitations in the face of expanding responsibilities result in some agencies deferring filling a properly allocated job until sufficient funds are captured for payment of the correct salary; accepting the proper allocation of the job and eliminating other positions to pay for it; or "writing the job description down." A pragmatic approach would be to recognize legally that a fund shortage justifies underallocation. The position should be flagged to insure prompt reallocation when funds are available and the employer given a candid explanation of the circumstances producing the underallocation. (3) Downgrading an occupied position presents a most delicate problem. Usually an expedient is adopted. This may involve gently inflating the position description, delaying adverse action indefinitely, or following other similar tactics. It would be more realistic to permit "incumbency allocations" and flagging the position to indicate it is improperly classified. Upon change of incumbency, the position would revert to its proper grade. When supposedly sound principles of personnel administration are characterized by widespread nonobservance, their validity should be reappraised. The rationale for any classification system constituted within a legal framework should be based on two criteria: Does it serve as an aid to management? Does it ensure like grades for like work? Our experience should

be channelled into legislation designed to overcome acute inflexibility and mock equity.  
—Kelvin D. Sharp.

McINNIS, H. D., "Meeting the Classification Dilemma." *Personnel Administration*, March, 1952.—95% of all government employees have a laissez-faire attitude toward the Federal Classification Act of 1949 and pertinent regulations of the Civil Service Commission; the remaining 5% are position classifiers. When an administrative problem arises which it appears can be resolved by misallocation, the law is ignored or stretched to accommodate the misallocation. One group ignores the law because there are no penalties imposed for noncompliance; another considers the act a mistake; another that the law in itself is beneficial but that executive discretion to deviate is inherent in its application; and another sees no necessity for adherence to principles lacking in scientific precision or measurement. The array of opposition to a tight position classification system is such that there will never be any change toward stringency so long as operating government agencies have their own classification authority. There is a serious weakness in an operating "philosophy of exception" such as is practiced in federal classification administration in the belief that natural controls exist which preclude any abuse of the practice of making classification exceptions. The only effective control possible is the discretion of the individual classifying authorities; and in this the achievement of reasonable consistency across organizational lines appears an impractical dream. There is doubt that situations truly exist which justify the intentional misallocation of positions. The classification law will continue to be winked at, personnel officers will continue to rationalize misallocations in terms of expediency, and position classifiers will continue to marvel at the whole wonderful process unless sufficient interest can be generated on the subject. Proof can be secured only through research and quality control analyses.—Carroll R. Boling.

### Employee Relations

LOTT, CATHERINE S., "Let's Have an Attitude Survey." *Personnel Administration*, March 1952.—It is easy enough to propose an employee attitude survey, a highly intricate and complicated task to make one. Members of the personnel staff, though technically trained for their jobs, are no more qualified to handle the technical aspects of an attitude survey than are well-intentioned but untrained individuals to

cope with the complicated methodologies, principles, techniques, laws, and regulations pertaining to personnel administration. Once the decision is made to conduct an attitude survey, the first step should be to obtain the assistance of technicians in the field. The first steps in planning should be to determine:

(1) what information is desired; (2) how and from whom it may be obtained; (3) how it will be used. In answering these questions, cost factors are important, as are the actual availability of the information desired, and whether something can and will be done if survey results indicate the need for action. Data obtained must be not merely interesting, but useful. By thinking through the possible implications of all questions, management can avoid situations that may be embarrassing later. The questionnaire should be tailor-made, to fit the organization concerned, not just a copy or adaptation of one someone else has used. There are a few simple rules which should govern questionnaire construction: (1) Use simple words, readily understandable by the employees. (2) Keep the questionnaire as short as possible, and the questions simple. (3) Leave space for comments. (4) Personal history data can and should be requested when needed for control purposes in tabulating and analyzing the returns. (5) The questionnaire should be carefully pretested, to eliminate "jokers" or other evidence of defective draftsmanship. (6) Scaling, though difficult, is useful in revealing the intensity with which opinions are held; the questions should be so framed that scaling is possible. (7) Tabulations and statistical totals alone are likely to be meaningless, as are comparisons between different organizations in which the conditioning factors vary widely. (8) Likewise, in the use of the questionnaire, anonymity of the respondents is essential for complete freedom of expression. The control information requested should make possible a three-way tabulation: general, by organizational unit, by organizational unit without identification. Various sensitive questions as to the use of the information revealed by the questionnaire are raised, and a number of recent articles dealing with methodology—not survey results—are listed.—*W. Brooke Graves.*

PLANTY, EARL and MACHEVER, WILLIAM, "Upward Communications: A Project in Executive Development." *Personnel*, January, 1952. As modern management has recognized the increasing responsibility of understanding, developing, and coordinating large groups, effec-

tive communications has become important. Communications from the top down has been readily acceptable to industry, but little has been done to develop communications from the bottom up. Johnson and Johnson set up a syndicate or committee to study upward communications. The syndicate method was first developed at the Staff College, England. A syndicate investigates thoroughly a broad and fundamental aspect of business, calling in experts to testify, reviewing literature, visiting business to observe their practices. A final report is made to the board of directors and major executives who criticize and defend it. The Johnson and Johnson syndicate found values for business in using upward communications. Management could find out better how downward communications were received. Employees understood and accepted directives better when their merits and defects were discussed. Employees feel a strong sense of personal worth from it. Obstacles for effective upward communication were discussed: resistance inherent in temperament of supervisor and employee, physical distance, few facilities or incentives to encourage it, and the difficulty of semantics. The syndicate believed that upward communication should cover a systematic and balanced group of employees, that it should be directed for action, and that there should be sensitive and objective listening. The most effective method of tapping ideas is sympathetic listening in day-to-day contacts. Other media were supervisor checklists, union publications, suggestion system, departmental meetings. Upward communications develop democracy and leadership in the work place, and satisfy a basic human need for self-expression and participation. (Article contains questions to use as a guide in upward communications) —*Alberta J. Brown.*

### Recruitment

BANCROFT, GERTRUDE, "Older Persons in the Labor Force." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, January, 1952.—Among population groups subject to possible disadvantage or discrimination in the labor market, the older worker is the most universally vulnerable. Hence, it is important to examine what can be anticipated in the way of opportunities for older persons to continue to keep their place in a productive economy. Studies of the period between 1940 and 1947 suggest that retirement of older workers has not been voluntary. It is possible that if retirement did not bring hardships for most people, attitudes might differ sharply as to the desira-



bility of retaining a place in the labor force. At present the older worker has the advantage where principles of seniority have been long established or where job security is a legal matter. Industries which pay comparatively low wages also employ older workers as they cannot attract the more productive worker. Part-time work has often been proposed as a means by which older persons could remain at work. Currently the great majority of older workers are still full-time workers. Studies have shown that part-time work is usually on a voluntary basis during a period of full employment. Few of the present part-time workers are in manufacturing, the largest single major industry class. Should a program for part-time older workers be started in this area many workers would return to the labor force and others now on a full-time basis might be expected to change to part-time work. Factors which tend to decrease activity of older persons in the labor force are urbanization of the population, increased longevity, increased mechanization of production, and decline of self-employment. Factors which tend to increase activity of older persons in the labor force are defense needs, cost of retirement programs, and greater understanding of the needs of older people. There is reason to think that the present defense program may result in a temporary solution for the older worker's employment problems, but for the long run the pattern is not clear. It is likely, however, that without basic changes in current policies and attitudes the older worker will find himself facing a long retirement. (tables)—*John W. Jackson.*

MANDELL, MILTON M., "The Qualifications Investigation." *Personnel*, March, 1952.—The search for better methods of personality evaluation continues because of the fundamental importance of such evaluation in selection. The qualifications investigation method described here differs from other methods in that descriptions and evaluations of behavior and performance of the person being considered for the executive position are obtained through personal interview with present and former supervisors, colleagues, and subordinates rather than through artificial situations of tests or interviews. Certain basic principles should be observed: a period of at least 10 years should be covered to assure that all possible facets of a person's personality are taken into consideration; information should be obtained from persons who have seen the candidate in a variety of situations; information ob-

tained should be descriptive rather than evaluative because the latter might be unreliable; wherever possible interviews should be employed rather than correspondence; questions should be appropriate to the particular situation and should be formulated in advance; information available in existing records should be considered; a systematic evaluation of the data should be made, perhaps in the form of a profile; the investigation and evaluation should be made by competent personnel. There are several possible disadvantages: the person giving the information may be biased; evaluations may be based on factors irrelevant to the position to be filled; the method is expensive; the evaluation obtained is highly subjective. It would seem, however, that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. This method provides an opportunity for measuring the whole man in natural circumstance and shows directly how he adjusts to his environment.—*Robert A. Quinn.*

ELLIOTT, TRAVIS A., "So You Represent the Personnel Department?" *Personnel Administration*, January, 1952.—What kind of personnel work do you do? Employment or placement? Job evaluation? Employee relations or counseling? Training? Or maybe you are a "generalist" working under some such title as Personnel Technician or Personnel Representative? Call it what you will, it's most likely that in efforts to keep up with the Joneses your personnel manager has told you that the personnel administration function is being decentralized—that your organization is going to take the personnel program out in the field where personnel are. Maybe he has told you that "no personnel program is any stronger than the first line supervisor." A sound personnel management philosophy provides ample grounds for mutuality of interests and singleness of purpose—teamwork between management and labor. You will devote your energies to fair, impartial, and effective human management of human beings in American production. If you are the boss type of individual who likes to give orders and get things done, it is most likely that you will not make a successful adjustment to personnel staff work. To be effective in personnel administration (staff) work, you must have a basic attitude that human beings in general are remarkably good. Brother, in personnel work you love everybody and hate nobody. Effective personnel work just doesn't afford you the luxury of carrying a chip on your shoulder. It is well to keep in mind that the people you are working

with are the actual producers. Try to put yourself in the foreman's shoes. Your job is to sell your product, the principles of good personnel management, so that your customers understand, buy, and use the commodity. We do not know all the answers. We can only struggle to find them. Your chief concern then is to be right. If you are right your boss has an open channel to the man who runs the show.—*Gale L. Reeder.*

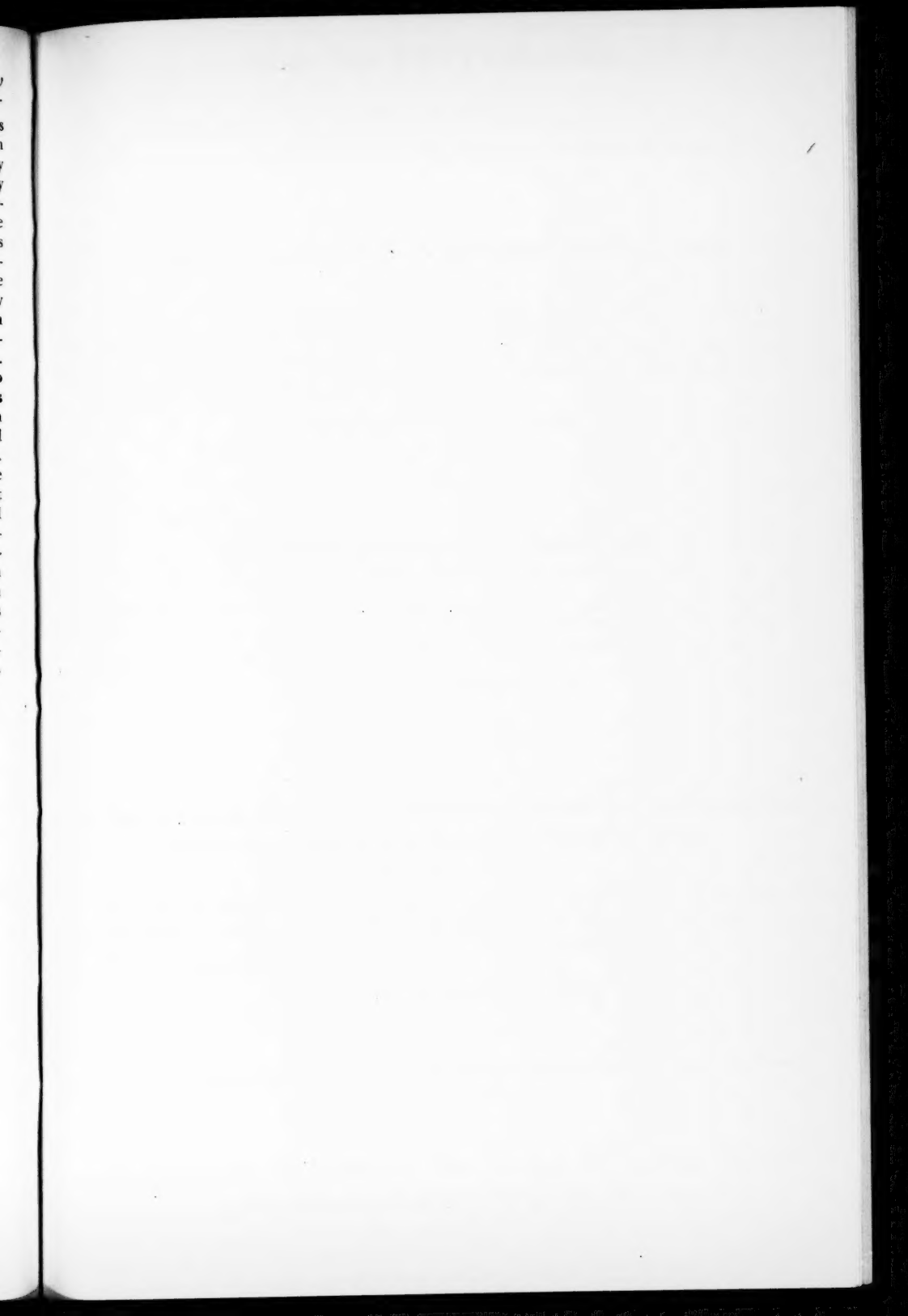
### Suggestion Programs

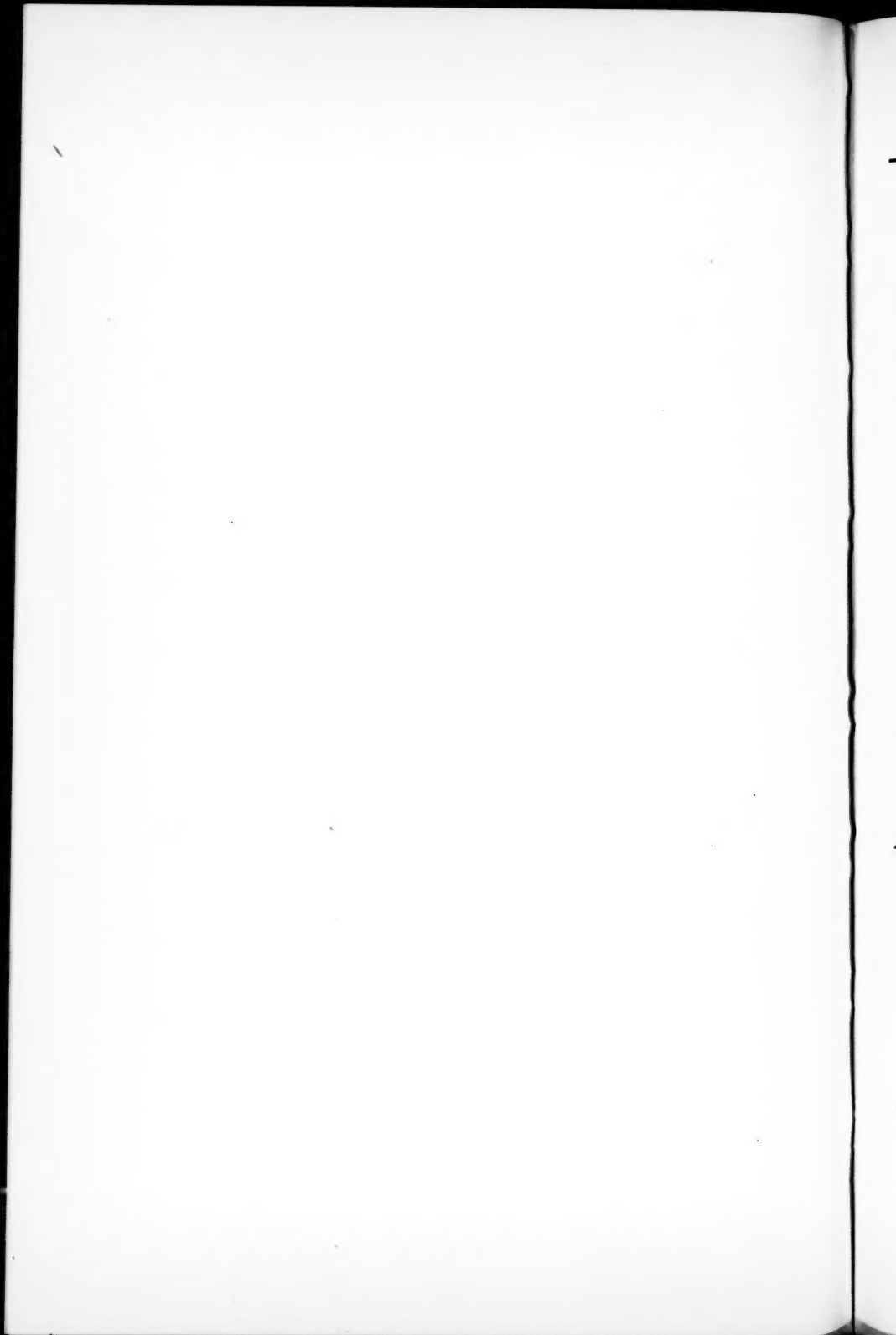
DAVIS, KEITH, "Suggestion Programs and Productivity." *Personnel Journal*, February, 1952.—Just how well is the industrial worker imbued with the idea of greater productivity? Management recognizes a need for greater productivity and tries to emphasize this need to the worker in various ways, one of which is the suggestion program. However, there is some dispute among members of management as to just how much workers are really "sold" on productivity. One index of the workers' degree of acceptance of productivity should be the proportion of their suggestions which are productively focused, contrasted to those which are personally focused. Suggestion system experts believe that the suggestion program is primarily related to morale, since it seeks to

improve employer-employee relations. It is easy to determine the employee's viewpoint on the purpose of suggestions by seeing what they tend to emphasize when there is opportunity to submit both productively focused and personally focused suggestions. The results of one company are reported. The suggestion-focus analysis covered every suggestion, 158 in number for a period of five months. Results were surprising. In a plant of 2,000 employees only one productively focused suggestion had been adopted in five months! Ten other productively focused suggestions were under study. Personally focused suggestions amounted to 78 per cent of the total received. The awards for suggestions had offered to pay a maximum of forty times more for productively oriented suggestions than for personally oriented ones. The insignificant proportion of acceptable productively aimed suggestions showed that the program had failed to accomplish its stated objective. However, other evaluations are possible because many personally focused suggestions will indirectly affect productivity. In fact, a productivity suggestion may result in decreased productivity if it adversely affects morale. It is postulated that a standard suggestion program tends to reflect employee attitudes toward productivity more than it creates them.—*Rufus C. Browning.*

### There's Me and There's You

THE WORLD is composed largely of two kinds of people, the negative thinkers and the positive thinkers; those who think failure and those who think success. Negative thinkers are reluctant to venture anything for fear "something might happen." When confronted with a knotty problem they run to someone else with it, because they might "make a mistake." The stay-at-homes, the do-nothings, the crabs, the nervous wrecks, the failures—these include the negative thinkers. The positive thinkers are happier, more alive, more active, more adventuresome. They get things done. True, they inevitably make mistakes, but as long as their batting average is within reason, as long as their actions make some sense, they're more often applauded than censured—and they haven't time to worry.—*Personnel Newsletter*, May, 1952, City Personnel and Civil Service Officials of Texas.





## **Oral Tests: A Survey of Current Practice**

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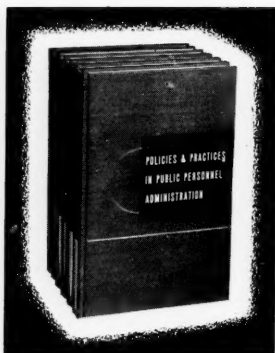
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